

APPLIED STATICS

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APPLIED STATICS

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PREFACE TO FIFTH EDITION.

It is the intention in the following pages to provide an elementary text to be used in conjunction with the lectures on Statics as given in the Faculty of Applied Science and Engineering at Toronto University. Recognizing the fact that the student very often wastes a great deal of time in working out the steps that are omitted in most mathematical text-books, the writer has endeavored to give each step in full, sometimes at the expense of conciseness.

Chapters XIV., XV., XVI. and the Appendix have been added to the original edition. The reader will no doubt notice many repetitions in the problems presented in the first three named chapters. These problems originally appeared in serial form in "The Canadian Engineer," which, of course, necessitated a large amount of repetition from week to week. It was thought better, however, to publish the problems in this book just as they were, for, as explained in the previous paragraph, this book is for the beginner and not the advanced student, who knows how and where to look for previous reasoning.

The writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to Professor C. H. C. Wright, upon whose course of lectures the following work is based, and to Professor W. J. Loudon for many valuable suggestions.

THOS. R. LOUDON.

Toronto, October 1st, 1912.

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APPLIED STATICS

CHAPTER I.

MECHANICS.

In its general interpretation, the subject of Mechanics treats of the Laws of Motion, of the relations that exist between matter and motion, and of the laws of equilibrium of what are termed **forces**.

Force, although popularly regarded as a definite, concrete idea, is the same sort of thing as velocity or acceleration, and is measured by the rate at which a mass changes its velocity.

In Engineering Mechanics, however, it may be considered as a definite quantity, capable of being measured, and represented by a number, the unit of which is the weight of one pound avoirdupois.

We speak, therefore, in popular phraseology of a force of ten pounds, or of a force **acting on a body**, or of forces **acting in certain directions**, just as if a force were a concrete thing, these being merely convenient, although scientifically misleading, modes of expression, which have been so ingrained into the whole subject of Mechanics that it would require a vast amount of circumlocution to avoid their use.

The following subdivision of Mechanics is generally used:—

1. Kinematics, which treats only of the geometry of motion.
2. Dynamics, which treats of the relations between matter and motion.
3. Statics, which deals with the laws of equilibrium of forces.

Although the subject of Statics alone will be considered here, yet the student should bear in mind that the second section, that of Dynamics, treats of Newton's Laws of Motion, which are given here because of their importance, especially the Third Law, the applications of which are continually occurring in statical problems.

Newton's Laws of Motion.

I. A body continues in a state of rest or uniform motion in a straight line till disturbed from such a state by an impressed force.

II. Change of motion is proportional to the impressed force, and takes place in the direction of the impressed force.

III. **Action and reaction are equal and opposite.**

CHAPTER II.

STATICS.

Taking the definition of the subject of Statics as given in the last chapter, it is seen that the consideration of motion does not enter into statical problems. It may be said, however, that although the analysis of motion produced or the tendency to produce motion does not constitute a part of the subject of Statics, it is often very convenient to examine the motion, or tendency to produce motion, in order that the properties of a given force or set of forces may be intelligently obtained.

The only forces considered in this treatise are coplanar forces, or forces acting in one plane.

It is advisable, before attempting the discussion of statical problems, that the student familiarize himself with the meanings of the terms given below:—

Magnitude—A property which admits of being measured. Quantities having this property may be relatively compared.

Direction—The common idea of direction is in reality compounded of two ideas, viz.: The line along which a certain manifestation may take place, or along which one body lies relative to another body; and which **way** along the line the manifestation takes place, or the one body lies relative to the other body. Direction, in the following pages, will be understood to mean merely the line along which action is manifested; concisely, **line of action**.

Sense—One of two **ways** in which a magnitude may be described or generated along a direction.

This distinction between Direction and Sense is more clearly seen by examples:—

A body is said to move vertically upward; i.e., the body moves in the vertical direction with an upward sense.

A building is said to lie east of another building; i.e., the first building lies in the direction of a parallel of latitude relative to the other building, and in an easterly sense.

A Vector.—A line conceived to have fixed length and direction in space, but whose position is not limited; i.e., the line may be drawn anywhere.

A Vector Quantity.—Any quantity having the properties, Magnitude, Direction, and Sense, is known as a vector quantity; e.g., Force, Velocity, Displacement, Acceleration. Such quantities may be graphically represented by Vectors.

A Rigid Body is one whose original form cannot be altered; i.e., the body cannot be compressed, extended, broken, or bent. Such a body, of course, exists merely in theory.

CHAPTER III.

GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATIONS—THE RESULTANT—COMPONENTS.

Graphical Representation of Force.

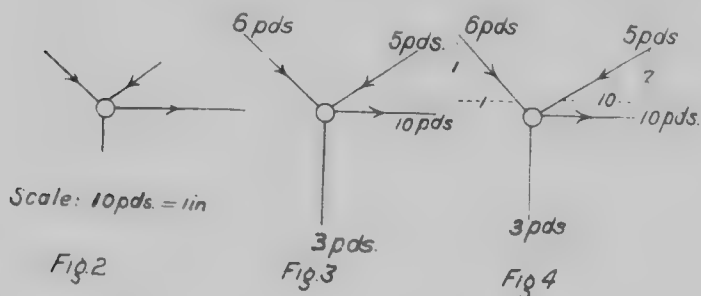
A Force, being a Vector Quantity, may be represented by a right line; for the direction of the line may represent the line of action of the force, the magnitude and sense being represented by first cutting off a portion of the line to some convenient scale of magnitude, and by then placing on this portion an arrow head pointed in the sense of action of the force.



Fig. 1.

Fig. 1 represents a force of ten pounds magnitude acting in the horizontal direction, with sense to the left, as indicated by the arrow head. The scale of magnitudes in this case is $\frac{1}{4}$ inch = 1 pound.

Fig. 2 represents a set of forces acting at a point. In this diagram the magnitudes of the forces are represented by the lengths of the various lines. It is often more convenient, however, merely to represent the directions and senses accurately, and to place the numerical value of the magnitudes beside the lines representing



the respective forces as in Fig. 3. Sometimes, when general conditions are merely wished in the form of a note, the directions as well as the magnitudes are only relatively represented, and the actual direction ratios, as well as the magnitudes, jotted down on the diagram as in Fig. 4

A diagram, such as either Fig. 2, Fig. 3, or Fig. 4, in which is given all the relative information of a set of forces, will be referred to as the **Statical Diagram** of the set of forces in question.

Bow's Notation.

In order that the graphical representation of any particular force may be intelligently and concisely referred to, a system of lettering known as Bow's Notation will be used throughout the work whenever possible. In this notation, the areas between the lines representing the forces are lettered, and a force is known by the letters to the areas on each side of the line representing that particular force.

Referring to the Statical Diagram (Fig. 5), the force of 50 pounds is known as either the force AB or BA, the force of 30 pounds as either the force BC or CB, and the force of 60 pounds as either the force CA or AC.

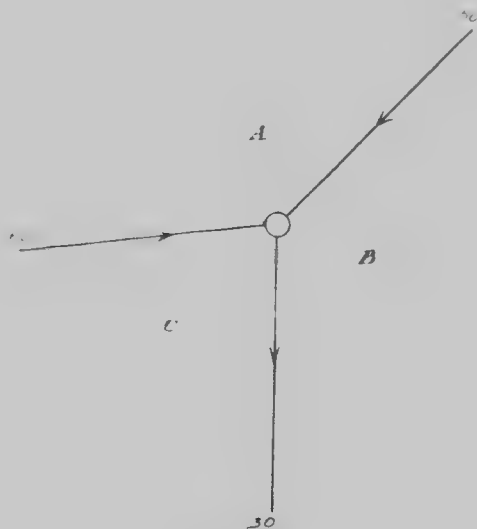


Fig. 5.

The Resultant Force is that one force which may replace and produce the same effect as a set of forces.

It is usual to refer to the Resultant Force merely as the **Resultant**.

It is evident that no resultant can be found for a set of forces in equilibrium. Because, if that could be done, there would be a single force (the resultant) acting on the body, and, therefore, motion would take place, which is impossible with equilibrium.

The Equilibrant or Balancing Force of a set of forces is that one force which, when acting with the set of forces, produces equilibrium.

The Equilibrant and Resultant of any given set of forces are of equal magnitude, and act in the same direction but with opposite senses; or concisely, they are two equal and opposite forces. For, since the Resultant produces the same effect as the set of forces, it is manifest from definition that the Equilibrant would, when acting with the Resultant, produce equilibrium. Experimentally, it may be shown that the only possible manner in which two forces acting on the same body can give a state of equilibrium is that they be of equal magnitude and act in the same line with opposite senses.

Graphical Determination of the Magnitude, Direction, and Sense of the Resultant of a Set of Forces.

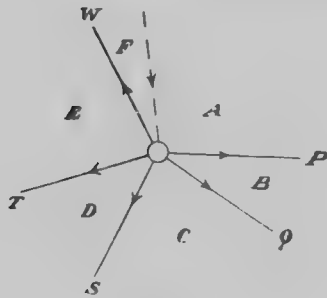


Fig. 6.

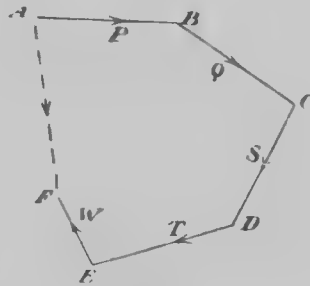


Fig. 6a.

Let there be given any set of forces, but, to make the problem clear, let us take a set of forces acting at a point. Fig. 6 is the Statical diagram of this set. Choose any initial point A as in Fig. 6a. From this point draw a line AB to represent **accurately** the force P in Fig. 6. From the point B, the line BC is drawn to represent the force Q (Fig. 6). In the same way the lines CD, DE, and EF are drawn to represent the forces S, T, and W, respectively. If now, the initial point A be joined to the final point F, then AF represents fully

the Resultant of the forces P , Q , S , T , and W . **The proof of this statement is experimental.**

The accuracy of the representation of the resultant in this last diagram depends entirely upon the care with which the relative directions and magnitudes of the forces are represented. If the directions of the forces relative to one another are represented accurately in the statical diagram, the simplest way of constructing the polygon is to draw the composing lines parallel to corresponding lines in the statical diagram.

The only restriction that is placed upon the construction of this polygon is that **the forces must be taken in such order that the sense marks in the polygon point continuously from the initial to the final point.** The sense mark of the resultant is always from the initial to the final point, and is, as it were, counter to the other sense marks.

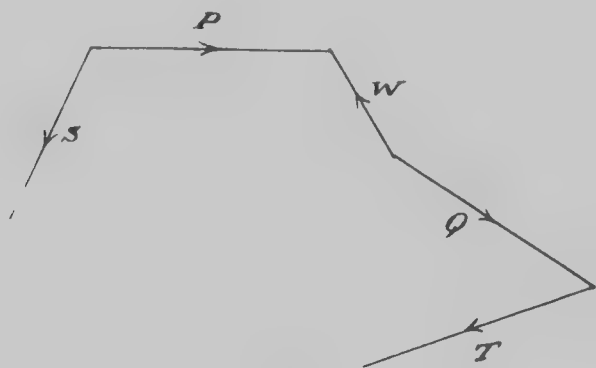


Fig. 7

Fig. 7 shows an improper way of constructing the diagram. It will be noticed that the sense marks do not point continuously around the diagram from the initial to the final point. The resultant may, however, be found by a different arrangement of the representations than that shown in Fig. 6a. Fig. 8 shows a different diagram properly constructed with sense marks pointing continuously from the initial to final point. The resultant as found in this last case will have exactly the same magnitude, direction and sense as that found in Fig. 6a.

In the case where the forces do not act at a point, the procedure is exactly the same, the forces being chosen in such order that the sense marks on their representations point continuously from the initial to the final point of the diagram.

Diagrams such as Fig. 6a and Fig. 8 will be referred to in future as **Vector Polygons** or **Vector Diagrams**, and must not be confused with the Statical Diagram. The distinction lies in the fact that the Statical Diagram gives all information regarding the actual relative positions of the forces as they lie in space, as well as the properties of the forces; whereas, only the magnitudes, directions, and senses of the forces need be known to construct the Vector Polygon.

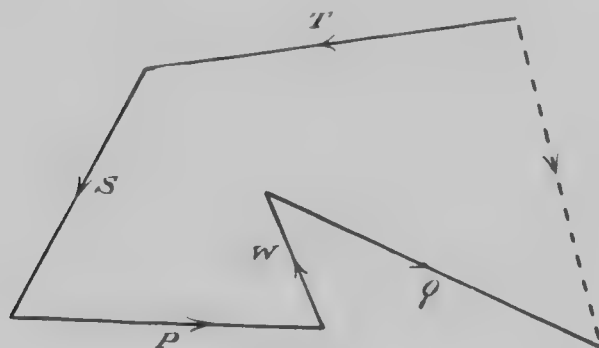


Fig. 8.

For a set of forces acting at a point, the resultant must act through this point in order to produce the same effect. Also, since the equilibrant acts in the same direction but in the opposite sense to the resultant, the equilibrant of a set of forces acting at a point must also act through the point. This gives a method of locating the resultant and equilibrant of a set of forces acting at a point, but for the general case, where the forces do not act at a point, the location of the resultant and equilibrant does not admit of such an easy solution, as will be seen later.

First Graphical Condition of Equilibrium.

It has been shown that a set of forces in equilibrium can have no resultant. Therefore, if the vector polygon be constructed for such a set of forces, the distance between the initial and final points, which represents the

resultant, must be equal to zero; i.e., the initial and final points will coincide, or, in other words, the polygon closes. From this, then, **the first graphical condition of equilibrium is that the vector polygon must close.**

Components.

It has been pointed out that a set of forces may be replaced by a single force. Conversely, a force may be replaced by a set of two or more forces. The forces comprising such a set are known as **Components** of the replaced force, and, since the force is interchangeable with any set of its components, it follows that **a force is the resultant of a set of its components.** This may be more clearly seen from Fig. 9.

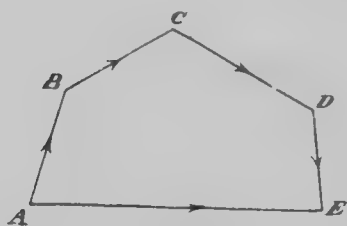


Fig. 9.

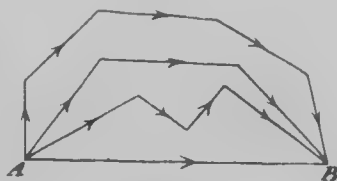


Fig. 10.

Let AE represent any force. AE is the resultant of AB , BC , CD , and DE ; i.e., AE may replace AB , BC , CD , and DE . Conversely, the set AB , BC , CD , and DE may replace AE ; i.e., they are a set of components. AE , the original force, is then the resultant of any of its component sets.

From this last statement it is seen that, if from the initial point of the representation of a force a number of lines be drawn continuously till the final point of the original representation is reached, these lines will represent a set of components. Fig. 10 shows a number of sets of components to the force AB . It is easily seen that an infinite number of such sets may be found.

To any force there may be found an infinite number of sets of components.

Resolved Parts.

In many of the problems of Statics, it is convenient to consider a force as replaced by a set of components, and in order to give definiteness to the problem, it is

usual to replace the original force by two components whose directions are inclined at right angles to one another. Such a pair of components are known as **Resolved Parts**, and since a pair of resolved parts must always act perpendicularly to one another, the direction

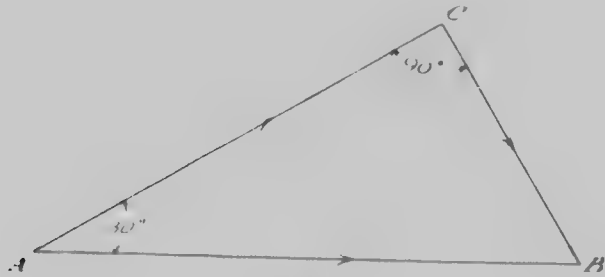


Fig. 11.

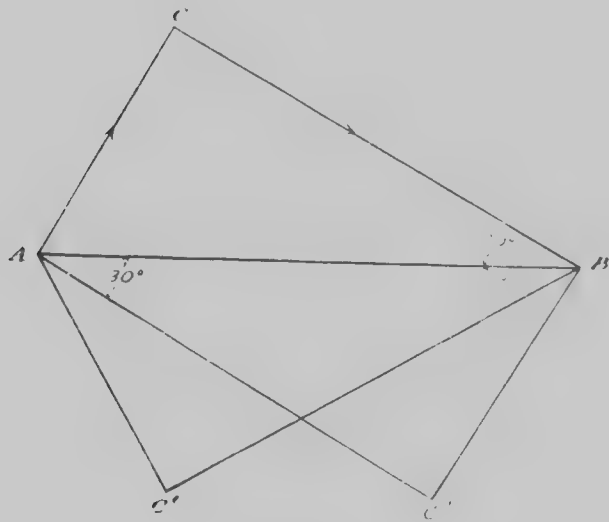


Fig. 12.

of one resolved part being given fixes the direction of the remaining resolved part. The operation of finding the value of a pair of resolved parts in any given directions that are perpendicular to one another, is known as **resolving** the original force in those directions.

Example:

A force of 50 pounds acts horizontally to the right. Find the magnitude of a pair of resolved parts, one of which is inclined to the horizontal at thirty degrees.

Until the student has become familiar with the operation of resolving forces, it is advisable to draw a rough graphical representation of the force and the required resolved parts, and then, from the data, find by trigonometrical means the required values.

Let AB (Fig. 11) represent the given force. AC and CB evidently represent the required resolved parts, for AC makes an angle of 30° with the horizontal, and CB is perpendicular to AC . Then

$$AC = AB \cos 30 = 50 \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 25\sqrt{3},$$

$$CB = AB \sin 30 = 50 \times \frac{1}{2} = 25,$$

which gives the magnitudes of the resolved parts in terms of the original force.

There are three other correct solutions to the problem which are shown in Fig. 12.

$AC, CB; AC', C'B; AC'', C''B$ are resolved parts which fill the requirements of the problem.

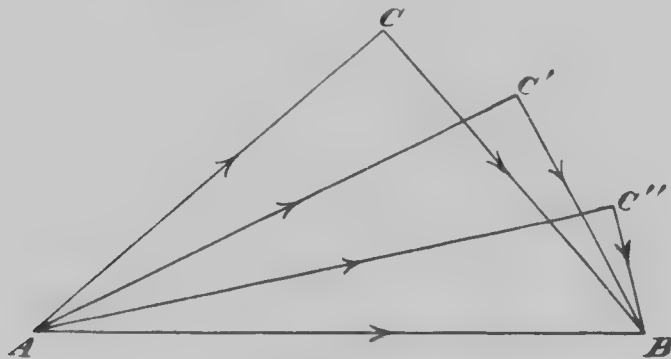


Fig. 13.

Resolved Parts Perpendicular and Parallel to a Given Force.

$AC, CB, AC', C'B,$ and $AC'', C''B$ (Fig. 13) represent sets of resolved parts of AB . The directions of $AC, AC',$ and AC'' are respectively nearer to coincidence with the direction of AB . The directions of $CB, C'B,$

and $C'B$ on the other hand, is respectively more nearly perpendicular to AB . Also, AC'' is nearer the value of AB than AC , and $C''B$ is closer to the value zero than CB . Consequently, if AB be resolved in directions coincident with and perpendicular to itself, the magnitudes of the resolved parts would be respectively equal to AB and zero. In general, then, the magnitude of a resolved part perpendicular to a given force is equal to zero, and the corresponding resolved part, whose direction must be coincident with the given force, is equal to the given force.

Horizontal and Vertical Resolved Parts.

In engineering statical problems, it is customary, unless otherwise stated, to confine attention to resolved parts in the horizontal and vertical directions, and in order that these may be concisely referred to, the horizontal resolved part is called the X , and the vertical resolved part the Y of the force in question. Furthermore, as will be seen, since the solution of many problems depends upon the algebraic summation of the X 's and Y 's of a set of forces, a convention as to the positive and negative sign of X 's and Y 's must be agreed upon.

Horizontal resolved parts (X 's) acting to the right and vertical resolved parts (Y 's) acting upward shall be considered positive.

Magnitudes of the X and Y of any Force whose Inclination to the Horizontal is Given.

Let AB (Fig. 14) represent a force of magnitude P . If the inclination of the line of action of the force to the horizontal be the angle α as shown, then AC and CB represent X_p and Y_p respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} X_p &= AC = AB \cos \alpha = P \cos \alpha, \\ Y_p &= CB = AB \sin \alpha = P \sin \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

If P act to the left as represented by AB' , and the angle of inclination still remain α , X_p is negative, but its magnitude is still given by $P \cos \alpha$. The Y_p is positive and still of magnitude $P \sin \alpha$.

It is seen, then, that the magnitude of the X of any force, irrespective of its sign, is given by the product of the magnitude of the force and the cosine of the

angle of inclination to the horizontal. The magnitude of the Y of any force is given by the product of the magnitude of the force and the sine of the angle of inclination to the horizontal.

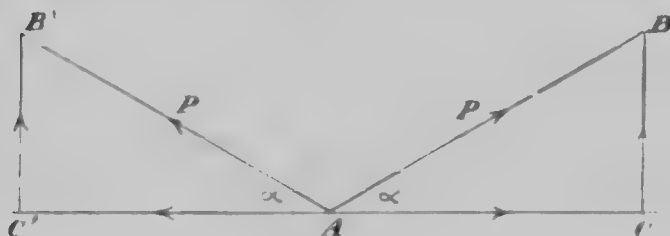


Fig. 14.

The X and Y of Horizontal and Vertical Forces.

If P be a horizontal force, then $\alpha = 0$, and

$$X_P = P \cos \alpha = P \cos 0 = P.$$

$$Y_P = P \sin \alpha = P \sin 0 = 0.$$

If P be a vertical force, then $\alpha = 90^\circ$, and

$$X_P = P \cos \alpha = P \cos 90 = 0.$$

$$Y_P = P \sin \alpha = P \sin 90 = P.$$

That is: The horizontal resolved part of a horizontal force and the vertical resolved part of a vertical force are both equal to the force itself.

The vertical resolved part of a horizontal force and the horizontal resolved part of a vertical force are both equal to zero.

CHAPTER IV.

MOMENTS—ANALYTICAL CONDITIONS OF
EQUILIBRIUM—COUPLES.

If a body be pinned at some one point and acted on by any force not passing through this point, there will be produced a rotation, or a tendency to rotate. If a new point be chosen, or if a new force be introduced, this tendency to rotate will also change.

It may be shown that the turning effect varies as the product of the magnitude of the force and the perpendicular distance of the force from the point. To this product is given the name of the **Moment** of the force.

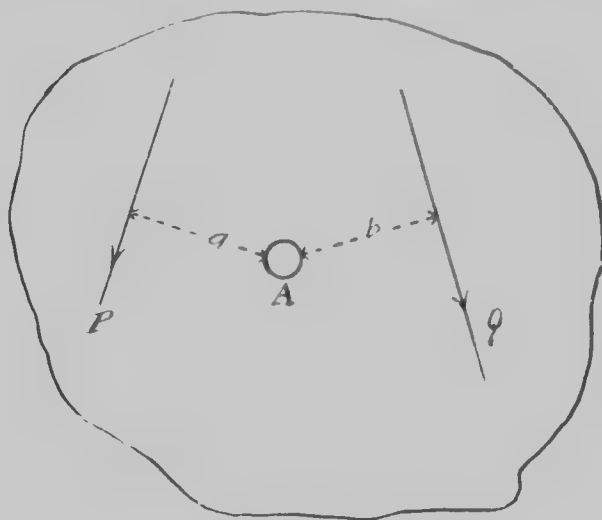


Fig. 15.

Definition:

The moment of a force about a given point is the product of the magnitude of the force and the perpendicular distance of the point from the line of action of the force.

Since it is often necessary to find the algebraic sum of the moments of a set of forces about some one point, a convention as to the positive and negative sign of moments has to be agreed upon. In all the following problems, forces which produce or tend to produce

rotation of the body acted upon about the point in question in the sense of the motion of the hands of a clock have positive moments.

It may be said here that the other sense of rotation is very often used as the positive. It really does not matter which convention is used as long as one convention is adhered to throughout the same problem.

As an illustration, let P and Q (Fig. 15) represent two forces acting on a body, and let A be any point in the body, a and b being the perpendicular distances of P and Q , respectively, from the point A .

Imagining the body to be pinned at A, the force $\mathbf{P}$ would cause or tend to cause a rotation of the body in the counter-clockwise sense of motion. The moment of $\mathbf{P}$ about A is, therefore, negative, and may be concisely written

$$M_P = -P_{\text{atm}}$$

Under the same conditions, $\mathbf{Q}$ would cause or tend to cause a rotation of the body in the same sense as the motion of the hands of a clock. $\mathbf{Q}$, in consequence, is said to have a positive moment, so that

Me₂ O b.

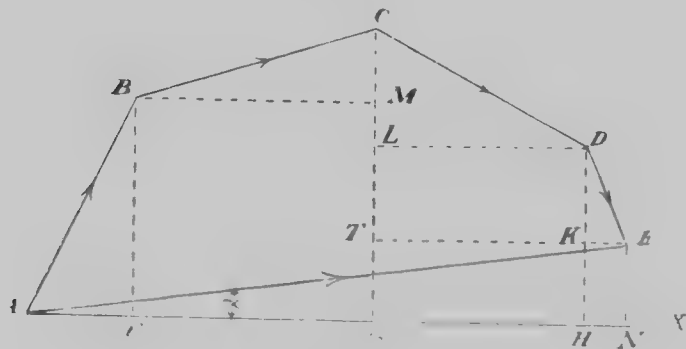


Fig. 16.

Analytical Determination of the Resultant.

To show that $\simeq_X = X_R$ and $\simeq_Y = Y_R$,

Let ABCDE (Fig. 16) be the Vector Polygon of a set of forces, the resultant of which it is required to find graphically.

Through A draw AX to represent the horizontal direction, and from B, C, D, and E drop perpendiculars to AX, intersecting AX at F, G, H, and N, respectively. Through B, D, and E draw BM, DL, and KE parallel to AX, intersecting CG and DH at M, L, and K, respectively.

The horizontal and vertical resolved parts of the forces represented by AB, BC, CD, and DE are represented by the following lines:

$$\begin{array}{ll} X_{AB} = AF & Y_{AB} = FB = GM \\ X_{BC} = BM = EG & Y_{BC} = MC \\ X_{CD} = LD = GH & Y_{CD} = LC \\ X_{DE} = KE = HN & Y_{DE} = KD = TL \end{array}$$

Denoting the algebraic sum of the horizontal resolved parts by ΣX and the algebraic sum of the vertical resolved parts by ΣY

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma X &= X_{AB} + X_{BC} + X_{CD} + X_{DE} \\ &= AF + EG + GH + HN \\ &= AN. \end{aligned}$$

But AN = X_R horizontal resolved part of the resultant; i.e., $\Sigma X = X_R$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma Y &= Y_{AB} + Y_{BC} + Y_{CD} + Y_{DE} \\ &= GM + MC + LC + TL \\ &= GT = NE. \end{aligned}$$

But NE = Y_R vertical resolved part of the resultant; i.e., $\Sigma Y = Y_R$.

If the inclination of the line of action of the resultant AE to the horizontal be denoted by α , then-

$$\begin{aligned} \tan \alpha &= \frac{NE}{AN} = \frac{\Sigma Y}{\Sigma X} \end{aligned}$$

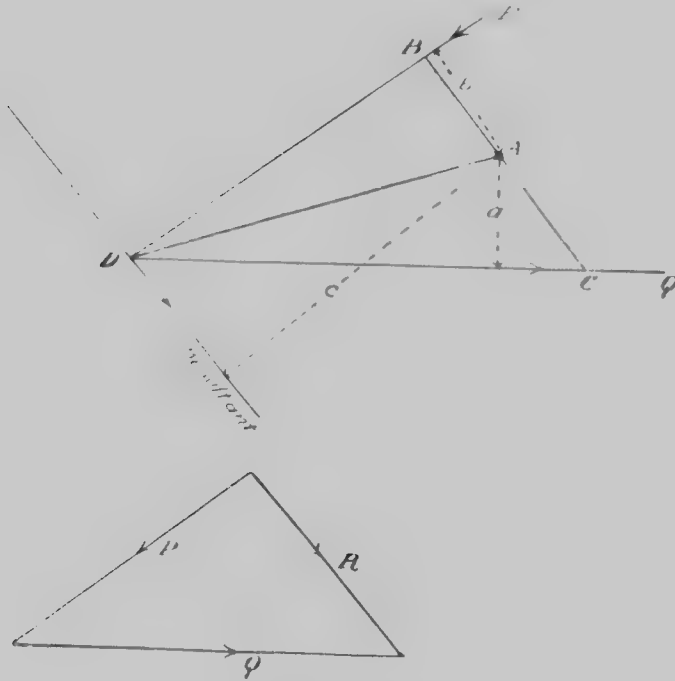
$$\text{and } R = AE = \sqrt{AN^2 + NE^2} = \sqrt{\Sigma X^2 + \Sigma Y^2}$$

To show that $\Sigma M = M_R$.

Consider any two forces, P, Q, as in Fig. 17.

Determine, by means of the vector polygon, the resultant R of P and Q. This resultant will act at D, the intersection of the lines of action of P and Q.

Choose any point A about which to take moments, join A to D and through A draw a line parallel to the line of action of the resultant R , intersecting P and Q at B and C , respectively. The perpendicular distances of A from the lines of action of P , Q , and R are b , a , and c , respectively.



Vector Polygon

Fig. 17

Because the lines BD , DC , and BC are situated collinearly to one another, as are the directions of P , Q , and R , the triangle BDC may be taken as a vector

polygon of the forces P , Q , and their resultant R , so that

$$P = BD; Q = DC; R = BC.$$

Find the moments about A

$$M_P = P.b = BD.b = 2 \Delta ABD,$$

$$M_Q = Q.a = DC.a = 2 \Delta ADC,$$

$$M_R = R.c = BC.c = 2 \Delta BDC.$$

Therefore, the algebraic sum of the moments of the forces P , Q , and R is ΣM

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma M &= M_P + M_Q \\ &= 2 \Delta ABD + 2 \Delta ADC \\ &= 2 \Delta BDC. \end{aligned}$$

$$BC.c = 2 \Delta BDC = M_R.$$

Therefore, $\Sigma M = M_R$.

That is, the algebraic sum of the moments of two forces about any point is equal to the moment of their resultant about the same point.

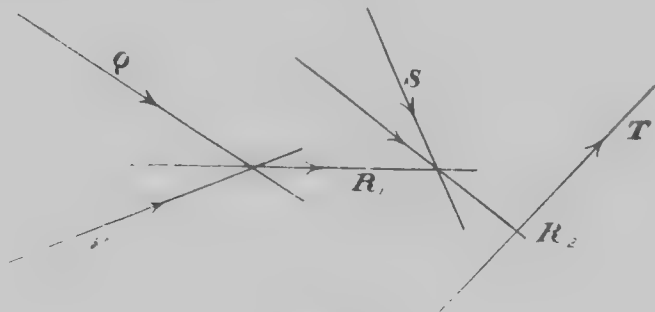


Fig. 18.

That the proof of the last proposition will apply to the case where the set of forces is more than two in number may be seen by considering a set of forces such as P , Q , S , and T represented in Fig. 18. P and Q may be replaced by their resultant R_1 , so that R_1 , S , and T are equivalent to the original set of forces. R_1 and S may be replaced by their resultant R_2 , leaving R_2 and T equivalent to the original four forces; that is, any number of forces comprising a set may be finally reduced to an equivalent pair of forces by such a system of combining and substituting resultants, and to the final pair

so found may be applied the preceding proof. **Therefore, $\Sigma M = M_R$ for any set of forces.**

In Fig. 17, the point A might have been taken in several other positions relative to P, Q, and R. If the point be taken in the line of action of either P or Q, the moment of either P or Q, respectively, would be zero. If the point be taken in the line of action of R, it is evident that a new construction must be devised. In this case, draw through the point a line parallel to either the force P or Q, producing it to intersect the line of action of the remaining force. The triangle so formed may be taken as a vector polygon as before and the same proof applied, the moment of R being zero.

Tabulating these analytical results:

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma X &= X_R, \\ \Sigma Y &= Y_R, \\ \Sigma M &= M_R, \end{aligned} \quad \tan \alpha = \frac{\Sigma Y}{\Sigma X} \quad R = \sqrt{\Sigma X^2 + \Sigma Y^2}.$$

From these, the magnitude, direction, sense, and location of the resultant of any set of forces may be fully determined.

Analytical Conditions of Equilibrium.

It has previously been shown that a set of forces in equilibrium can have no resultant. From this it follows that since the value of the resultant is zero, the X, Y, and M of R must be equal to zero, and consequently:—

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma X &= 0, \\ \Sigma Y &= 0, \\ \Sigma M &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

are the analytical conditions of equilibrium.

Couples.

Definition: A couple is a pair of equal forces which act in parallel directions with opposite senses.

Fig. 19 represents a couple. The two forces are of magnitude P, and are a distance *a* apart.

If the vector polygon be drawn for these two forces it must necessarily close.

Let α be the angle that the directions of the forces make with the horizontal.

According to the analytical conditions $\sum X$, $\sum Y$, and $\sum M$

$$\sum X = P \cos \theta - P \cos \theta = 0,$$

$$\sum Y = P \sin \theta - P \sin \theta = 0,$$

Taking moments about any point A distant x from one of the forces

$$\sum M = P \sin \theta \cdot x - P \sin \theta \cdot x = 0.$$

If A be taken in any other position, it is found that the result is always the same, and since P and a are both constants

$$\sum M = P \cdot a = \text{Constant}.$$

Summary:

For a couple, then, the vector polygon must close,

$$\sum X = 0,$$

$$\sum Y = 0,$$

$$\sum M = P \cdot a = \text{Constant}.$$

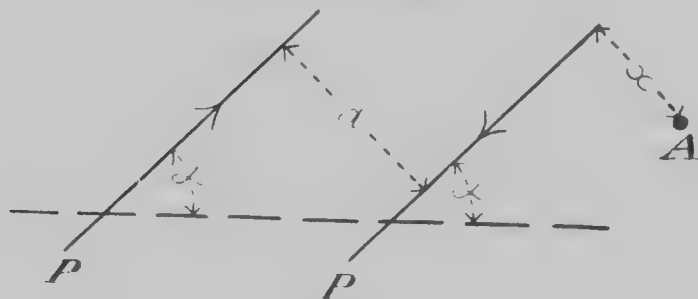


Fig. 19.

Three Forces in Equilibrium.

Three forces in equilibrium must have lines of action which intersect at a common point.

If it were possible, let P , Q , and S (Fig. 132) be three forces in equilibrium. Take moments about the point O , the intersection of the lines of action of P and Q .

$$\Sigma M = Mp + Mq + Ms.$$

$$P \cdot o + Q \cdot o + S \cdot a.$$

$$S \cdot a;$$

i.e., these forces cannot be in equilibrium, for ΣM must equal zero for a set of forces in equilibrium.

It is evident, however, that if the distance a becomes zero, that is, the line of action of S passes through O , that ΣM would also become equal to zero and the three forces would be in equilibrium, provided, of course, that the other conditions, $\Sigma X = 0$ and $\Sigma Y = 0$, were also fulfilled.

It may be mentioned here that three forces do not have to act at a point in order that ΣX and ΣY be equal

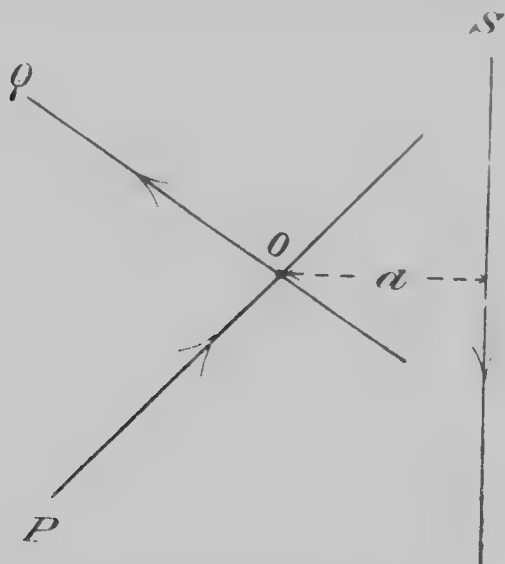


Fig. 132.

to zero. (It is merely that ΣM may equal zero for three forces that the above condition must be fulfilled.)

The reader must clearly understand that every set of three forces which acts at a point is not in equilibrium; but if three forces are in equilibrium they must fulfil the condition enunciated at the beginning of this proposition.

CHAPTER V

DETERMINATION OF UNKNOWN FORCES TENSION AND COMPRESSION STRESS IN TRUSS MEMBERS.

Let Fig. 20 represent a plank resting on an abutment A such that 10 feet and 30 feet of the total length overhang to the left and right, respectively. If 100 pounds be placed on the left hand end of the beam, what must be the magnitude of the force P exerted at the other end in order to preserve equilibrium, and what is the magnitude of the abutment reaction A?

Consider the beam as a rigid body. The forces acting on the body are: The abutment reaction, acting vertically upward with a magnitude of A pounds, and the two forces of magnitude, 100 and P pounds, acting

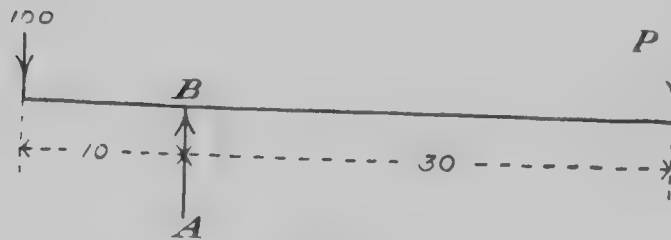


Fig. 20.

vertically downward, and these three forces are in equilibrium; therefore, $\Sigma X = 0$, $\Sigma Y = 0$, and $\Sigma M = 0$.

Apply these analytical conditions of equilibrium:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma X &= X_{100} + X_A + X_P = 0, \\ &= 0 + 0 + 0 \text{ since all the forces act vertically.} \\ \Sigma Y &= Y_{100} + Y_A + Y_P = 0, \\ &= -100 + A - P = 0, \\ &A - P = 100 \dots\dots\dots (1)\end{aligned}$$

Take moments about any point in the abutment, say, B. The convention as to positive and negative moments must be kept in mind.

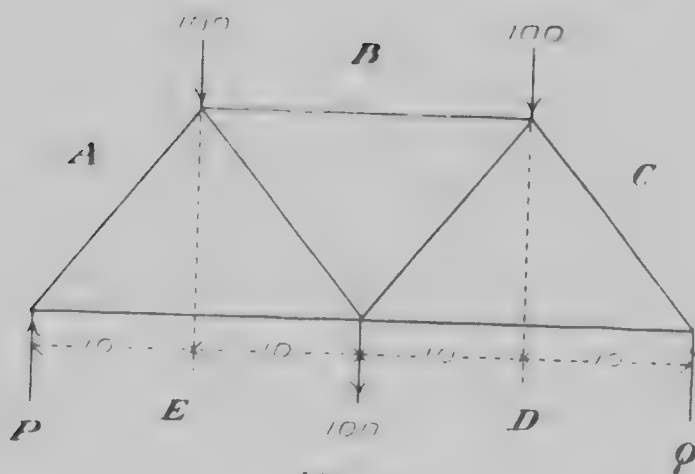


Fig. 21.

It is evident that the supports at P and Q support all the load, and the members of the truss support no load. If the supports are removed, then the truss will collapse. This is made evident by the fact. It is the student's duty, however, to see that this reasoning is only based upon the condition $\sum Y = 0$.

Tension and Compression.

If a steel bar AB (Fig. 22) rest against a wall and a resultant force P be exerted at B against the bar, the bar is said to be **in compression**.

Keeping in mind Newton's third law of motion, that action and reaction are equal and opposite, it is evident that at B there must be a force exerted contrary and equal to P . This is indicated by D . If any section such as C be examined, it also follows that the right hand particles must be exerting a force equal to P , which is resisted by the left hand particles, as indicated by E and F . Arriving at the end A , there is exerted a push against the wall of magnitude P , as represented by G .

in tension

If at any section of a body it is found that the resultant of the forces acting at the section acts against the section, the body is said to be in compression; or, if this resultant is found to be acting away from the section, the body is in tension.

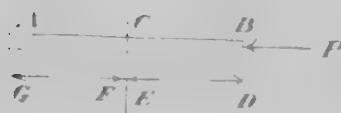


Fig. 22.



Fig. 23.

The Stress in Truss Members.

The following problem indicates the method of determining the stress in the members of a truss structure. The truss chosen to illustrate this is known as the *Howe truss*, which is a recent bridge building the world over. The example given is necessarily a very simple case, but, while difficulties may arise in other problems relating to stress in truss members, they are found to be due to lack of knowledge as to where to begin the problem rather than to any large in the principle involved. Experience in working problems is the only remedy for this last-named obstacle.

From any initial point B (Fig. 26) draw a line parallel to BC' in Fig. 25 to represent the direction of the force BC. Cut off BC, in Fig. 26, to represent a magnitude of 100 pounds, placing the sense mark from B to C, thus totally representing the force BC.

from C (Fig. 20) draw a line parallel to CA in Fig. 25. Now, since the magnitude of the force CA is

the vector AB in Fig. 25, the force exerted by the weight A on the support C , and the force CA exerted by the support CA . Hence, the vector polygon is BC, CA , and AB , and the vector polygon is closed. This indicates that the system is in equilibrium. So, the force exerted by the support C on the weight A is the vector CA , and the force exerted by the weight A on the support C is the vector AB .

Let us now draw the vector polygon through B in Fig. 25, starting with the vector BC . This is the force exerted by the support C on the weight A . The vector CA is the force exerted by the weight A on the support C . This is the force exerted by the weight A on the support C .

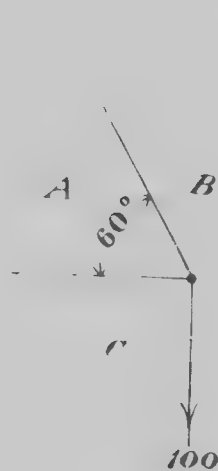


Fig. 25.

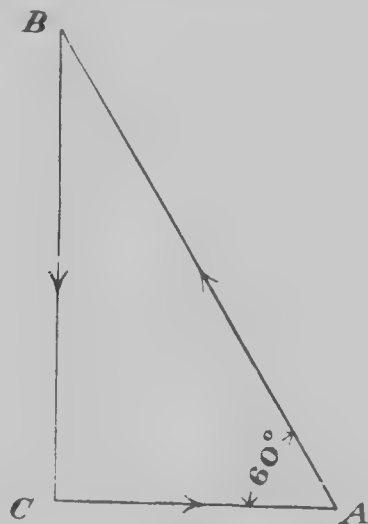


Fig. 26.

that CA and AB in Fig. 25 represent completely the hitherto unknown forces CA and AB , their senses being such as to give continuous sense from the initial point to the final point of the polygon as indicated.

From the data on the statical diagram the triangle BCA is a right-angled triangle. It follows that since

$$BC = 100$$

$$CA = 100 \times \frac{1}{\sin 60^\circ} = 115.5$$

$$AB = 100 \times \frac{1}{\cos 60^\circ} = 200$$

Putting the sense of CA and AB as found in the vector polygon on the statical diagram, it is seen that

CA acting on the point C of AB, and on the point D of the member CA, there is a compression member AB acting on the point A of the member CA, and on the point D of the member AB.

For the member CA, there is a compression member AB acting on the point A of the member CA, and on the point D of the member AB. For the reasoning on tension and compression see page 34.)

Fig. 27 is the force diagram for the point ABD. Since the member AB is in tension, there is a known force AB acting away from the point ABD as indicated. The two forces BD and DA are unknown.

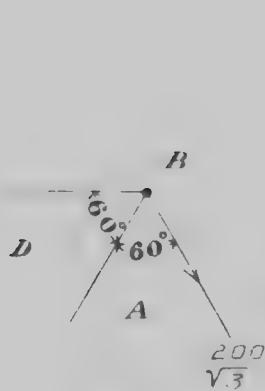


Fig. 27.

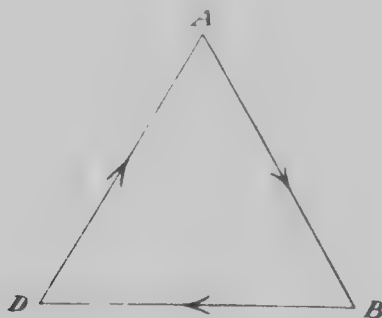


Fig. 28.

Referring to Fig. 28, AB represents the known force AB. From B is drawn a line to represent the direction of the unknown force BD, and from A a line is drawn to represent the direction of the second unknown force DA. These two lines intersect at D. BD and DA represent the unknown forces BD and DA, and because the triangle ABD is equilateral (from data),

BD and DA must each be equal to AB; i.e., of 200 pounds magnitude.

BD acts away from the point ABD and DA against the point. The members BD and DA are, therefore, in tension and compression, respectively.

The results of the preceding solution are given in Fig. 29, compression and tension members being shown by thickened and light lines, respectively.

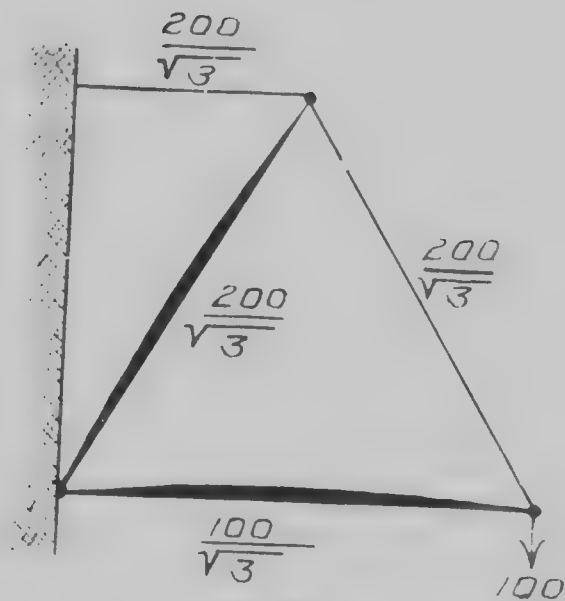


Fig. 29

Analytical Solution.

Applying the method of joints to the trapezoid, we have the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum F_x &= 0 \\ \sum F_y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

For the top joint, we have the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum F_x &= 0 \\ \sum F_y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

CHAPTER VI

THE EQUILIBRIUM OR FUNICULAR POLYGON.

The Vector Polygon gives the magnitude, direction, and sense of the Resultant of a set of forces, but does not determine the true position of the line of action of this Resultant. The problem of locating the Resultant may be accomplished by means of what is termed the Equilibrium Polygon.

Let P , Q , and S (Fig. 149) be any set of co-planar forces, the Resultant of which it is required to locate.

In a previous discussion, it was shown that the size and shape of the body acted upon can in no way affect the position of the line of action of the Resultant and Equilibrant of a set of forces; in other words, **the Resultant and Equilibrant are independent of the size and shape of the body acted upon.** This being the case, it will be shown that the position of the Equilibrant and Resultant may be determined by replacing the original body by an unbraced, free-jointed frame, the shape of which will give the desired information.

$ABCD$ (Fig. 150) is a Vector Polygon for the forces P , Q and S . DA evidently represents the Balancing Force or Equilibrant of this set of forces.



If the position of the Equilibrant can be located, the position of the Resultant will also be known.

Let us now consider the case of three forces acting on a body.

Choose any point O (Fig. 149) and draw the lines OA , OB , and OC representing the lines of action of the forces P , Q , and R .

The lines OA , OB , and OC are not in the same plane. The lines OA , OB , and OC form a closed triangle. The lines OA , OB , and OC are not in the same plane. The lines OA , OB , and OC form a closed triangle.

For instance, the forces BO and OA are in the same plane. The lines OA , OB , and OC form a closed triangle.



Let us now consider the case of three forces acting on a point O . The forces OA and BO . These three forces are in equilibrium.

For the time being, any discussion as to how these forces OA and BO are exerted and what constitutes the equilibrium of the three forces, P , BO , and OA , is deferred.

Produce the line of action of BO to intersect the line of action of OA at X , and at this point introduce the forces CO and OB (Fig. 150). The line of action of OB evidently coincides with BO (Fig. 150). It is seen

The following table gives the values of the various quantities for the case of a rectangular plate of width b and height h , with the origin of coordinates at the center of the plate.

x	y	z	u	v	w	ϕ	ψ	χ	θ	η	ξ
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10



FIG. 32.

$\therefore$ the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OA and the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OB .
 $\therefore$ the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OA and the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OB .
 $\therefore$ the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OA and the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OB .
 $\therefore$ the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OA and the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is OB .

Balancing Couple

Resultant Couple.

The Resultant Couple is the sum of the couples acting on the body.

Second Graphical Condition of Equilibrium.

If a body is in equilibrium, the resultant of the forces S, Q, P must be zero. If we were coincident that the frame, which would be in the form DEF , would hold the forces S, Q and P in equilibrium. The forces S, Q and P must be in equilibrium. The forces S, Q and P must be in equilibrium. The forces S, Q and P must be in equilibrium.

If, then, the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is zero, the body is in equilibrium. If the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is zero, the body is in equilibrium. If the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is zero, the body is in equilibrium. If the resultant of the forces S, Q, P is zero, the body is in equilibrium.

Graphical and Analytical Determination of the Resultant.

Graphical.	Analytical.
Vector Polygon gives the magnitude, direction, and sense of the Resultant.	$\sum X = X_R$ $\sum Y = Y_R$ $R = \sqrt{\sum X^2 + \sum Y^2}$ $\tan \theta = \frac{\sum Y}{\sum X}$

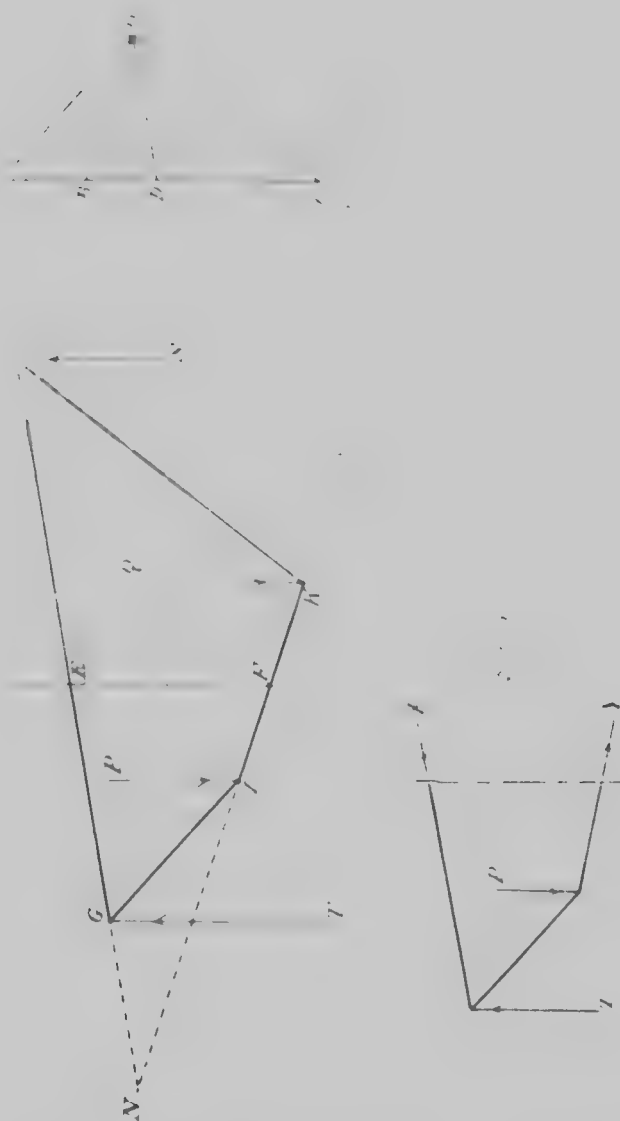
Equilibrium Polygon locates the line of action of the Resultant	$\sum M = M_R$
---	----------------

Conditions of Equilibrium.

Graphical.	Analytical
Vector Polygon must close.	$\sum X = 0$
Equilibrium Polygon must close.	$\sum Y = 0$
	$\sum M = 0$

Properties of the Equilibrium Polygon

FIGURE 1



P, Q, S, and T are held in equilibrium by the jointed forces of Equilibrium Polygon GHKI

the forces exerted on one side of the section by the cut members hold in equilibrium the external forces acting on the portion of the frame lying to the other side of the section.

Also that, the resultant of the external forces to one side of the section acts through the intersection of the cut members produced.

CHAPTER VII

THE METHOD OF SECTIONS.

It is often necessary to find the stress in one or more members of a truss, irrespective of the stress in other members. To obviate the tedious operation of working from point to point till the stress in the required member is finally reached, what is known as the **Method of Sections** is used, whereby the stress, say, in EF (Fig. 33) may be arrived at immediately from a consideration of the forces acting on the truss.

Imagine the truss represented in Fig. 33 as cut into

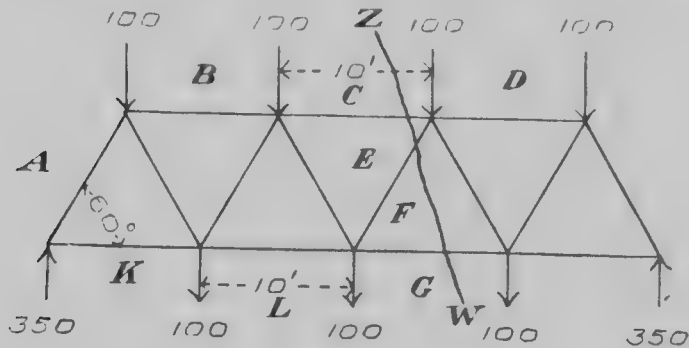


Fig. 33.

two sections at ZW. Consider the portion of the truss to the left of ZW. This considering the portion to the left is purely arbitrary. The same results would eventually be reached by considering the right-hand section, but in order to avoid confusion, the convention of considering the left-hand portion is agreed upon.

This portion of the truss to the left of ZW is held in equilibrium by certain forces **acting on it**. There is no difficulty in seeing that the left-hand abutment reaction AK, and the four loads AB, BC, KL, and LG, act on the body to left of ZW. **But that these forces alone could not preserve equilibrium** is easily seen. There must, then, be other forces acting on the body, and the only possible places where forces could act is where the portions of the members CE, EF, and FG, to the right of ZW, touch the portions to the left.

As far as the forces acting on the body are concerned, it does not matter whether the body be con-

sidered as a truss form or as a solid body having the boundary outline of the truss. It is generally less confusing, however, to choose the latter method, because it seems to concentrate attention on the extraneous forces.

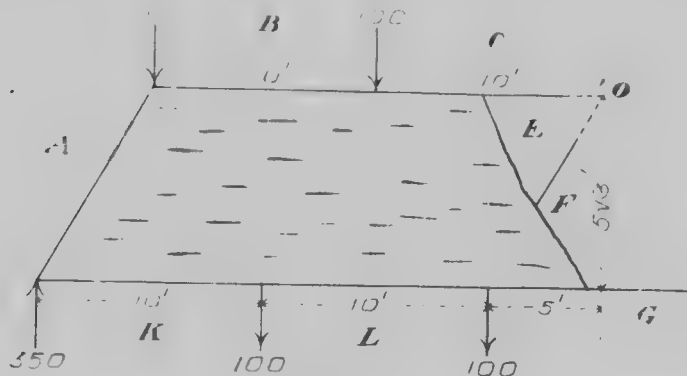


Fig. 34.

Fig. 34 represents the forces acting upon the portion of the truss to the left of ZW , considered as a solid rigid body. These forces are in equilibrium, and, since there are only three unknown forces, CE , EF , and FG , it is possible to solve for them by means of the three analytical equations of equilibrium, $\sum X = 0$, $\sum Y = 0$, $\sum M = 0$.

$$\sum Y = Y_{AK} + Y_{KL} + Y_{LG} + Y_{GE}$$

$$Y_{FE} + Y_{LC} + Y_{CB} + Y_{BA} = 0.$$

$$350 - 100 - 100 = 0.$$

$$FE \sin 60^\circ + 0 - 100 - 100 = 0.$$

$$350 - 400 + FE \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 0.$$

$$FE = \frac{100}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\sqrt{3}$$

From the positive sign of the result, the FE must be positive.

The member FE is, therefore, in tension 100 pounds.

Take moments about the intersection of CE and EF at the point O.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Sigma M &= M_{AK} + M_{KL} + M_{LG} + M_{GI} \\
 &+ M_{FE} + M_{EC} + M_{CB} + M_{BA} = 0. \\
 350.25 - 100.15 - 100.5 + GF.5 \sqrt{3} \\
 0 + 0 - 100.10 - 100.20 &= 0. \\
 350.25 - 100(15 + 5 + 10 + 20) \\
 &= GF.5 \sqrt{3} = 0. \\
 GF &= \frac{750}{\sqrt{3}}
 \end{aligned}$$

From the negative sign of the result the moment of GF about O must be negative. GF, therefore, acts away from the section;

i.e., the member GF is in tension $\frac{750}{\sqrt{3}}$ pounds.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Sigma X &= X_{AK} + X_{KL} + X_{LG} + X_{GI} \\
 &+ X_{FE} + X_{EC} + X_{CB} + X_{BA} = 0. \\
 0 + 0 + 0 + GF + FE \cos 60^\circ \\
 &+ CE + 0 + 0 = 0. \\
 \frac{750}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{100}{\sqrt{3}} + CE &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$CE = -\frac{800}{\sqrt{3}}$$

From the negative sign of this result, the X_{CE} must be negative. CE, therefore, acts against the section;

i.e., the member CE is in compression $\frac{800}{\sqrt{3}}$ pounds.

The student is advised to choose other sections in the same truss and work out the stresses in the various members by this means.

It must be recognized, however, that the Method of Sections is not a method particularly to be applied to certain problems, but is, in reality, used in all statical problems. Whenever one considers a set of forces acting on a body, a section has been taken around some portion of material which may even be part of a larger body, and this isolation of a body acted on constitutes the method of sections.

upon the portion of the beam being considered. The only possible place where such a force or forces could act is at the section ab in the beam. Let Fig. 36 represent the condition of affairs as far as the forces acting upon the body to the left of ab are concerned. These forces are in equilibrium; therefore, $\sum X$, $\sum Y$, and $\sum M$ must each equal zero.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= Y_A + Y_{W1} + (Y\text{'s of unknown forces}) = 0, \\ A - W1 &+ (Y\text{'s of unknown forces}) = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Replacing the Y 's of the unknown forces by their resultant, which may be denoted by V

$$\begin{aligned}A - W1 + V &= 0, \\ V &= (W1 - A).\end{aligned}$$

From which it is seen that V is equal in magnitude but acts in the opposite sense to the algebraic sum of

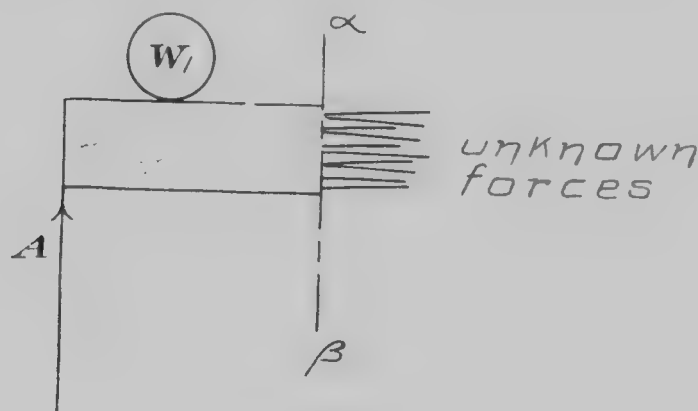


Fig. 36.

the vertical resolved parts of the exterior forces to the left of ab ; i.e., V resists $A - W1$. This quantity $(A - W1)$ is called the **Vertical Shearing Force** at the section under consideration.

Definition:

The Vertical Shearing Force at any section is equal to the algebraic sum of the vertical resolved parts of the exterior forces acting on the body to the left of the section being considered.

This is a general definition, but since the loads and support reactions in most cases, and certainly in all

cases that will be taken up here, act in the vertical direction, a more concise definition may be employed.

The Vertical Shearing Force for Vertical Loading and Abutment Reactions is equal to the algebraic sum of all exterior forces to the left of the section being considered.

Applying ΣX to the forces acting as indicated in Fig. 36

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma X &= X_A + X_{w_1} + (X\text{'s of unknown forces}) = 0, \\ 0 + 0 + (X\text{'s of unknown forces}) &= 0, \\ (X\text{'s of unknown forces}) &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Now, there are two ways in which the algebraic sum of the X 's of the unknown forces may be equal to zero. Either all the X 's are equal to zero, or the sum of the positive X 's is equal in magnitude to the sum of the negative X 's.

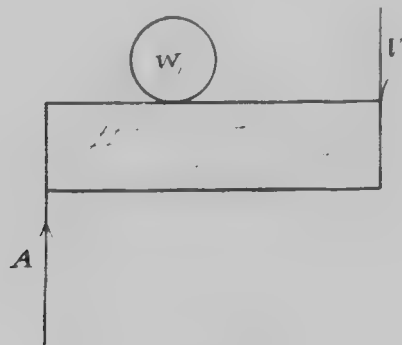


Fig. 37.

In order to determine which of these two cases is the true one, consider the forces acting on the portion of the body to the left of ab . Replace the unknown forces shown in Fig. 36 by their X 's and Y 's. The Y 's of these unknown forces have been shown to be equivalent to a force V , which will act downward if W be taken as less than A . If now we consider the first case that all the X 's are equal to zero, the state of affairs would be as represented in Fig. 37. It is seen at once that such a condition is impossible, since the forces

Definition:

The Bending Moment at any section for vertical loading and abutment reactions is equal in magnitude to the algebraic sum of the moments of the exterior forces to the left of the section, about a point in the section.

CHAPTER IX

**VERTICAL SHEARING FORCE AND BENDING
MOMENT FOR STATIONARY LOADS
ON A BEAM.**

The student is particularly advised to memorize the definitions of the Vertical Shearing Force (V.S.F.) and the Bending Moment (B.M.) at any section in a beam as given in the last chapter.

In explanation of the meaning of these terms, V.S.F. and B.M., it may be pointed out that in a beam under a load there is a tendency to bend; and because the deflection due to bending is different at various sections, it is reasonable to suppose that the bending influence is variable for different sections of the beam, which reasoning is borne out by the theory. The B.M.

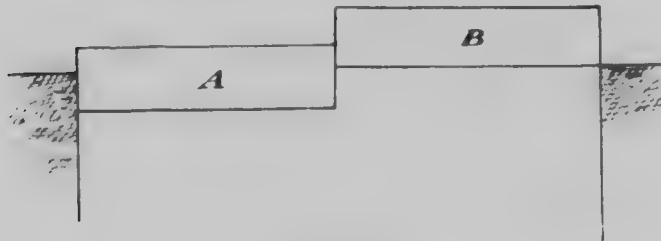


Fig. 39.

is related to this bending influence. Secondly, any portion of a beam has a tendency to slip past, or **shear** past, the other portion of the beam. For instance, in Fig. 39 the portion A has sheared past B. Whether any given portion of a beam actually does shear or not is aside from the question that there exists such a tendency. The V.S.F. is related to this tendency, which is variable for different sections.

**To Trace the Variation in V.S.F. Due to a Single
Concentrated Load.**

In Fig. 40, consider **any** section between the load W and the left-hand abutment. The V.S.F. at any such section = algebraic sum of exterior forces to left of section.

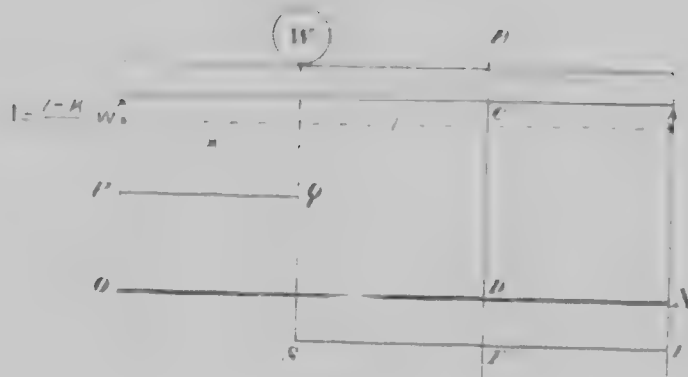


Fig. 40.

15

Therefore, $\nabla S_i \neq 0$ for all sections to right of M .

11 2 1

Journal of Management Studies, 19(1), 67-80.

Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a bounded domain with smooth boundary $\partial\Omega$. Let $\mathbf{u} \in H^1_0(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$ be a vector field satisfying $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{u} = 0$ in Ω and $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, where $\mathbf{n}$ is the outward normal. Define the bilinear form $a(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \operatorname{div} \mathbf{v}$. Show that $a(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in H^1_0(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} = 0$.

1

1 11

Plotting these ordinates with $OX = 0$ to 100 cm,

Figure 1. The diagram PUS1 is known as the

V.S.F. Diagram. If it is desired to find the V.S.F. at

THE VARIATION OF V.S.F. DUE TO ANY NUMBER OF CONCENTRATED LOADS

To Trace the Variation in V.S.F. Due to any Number of Concentrated Loads

Let A = V.S.F. at left-hand abutment.
 Let x = V.S.F. at any section.
 Let P = weight of first load.
 Let Q = weight of second load.
 Let R = weight of third load.
 Let S = weight of fourth load.
 Let T = weight of fifth load.
 Let U = weight of sixth load.
 Let V = weight of seventh load.
 Let W = weight of eighth load.
 Let X = weight of ninth load.
 Let Y = weight of tenth load.

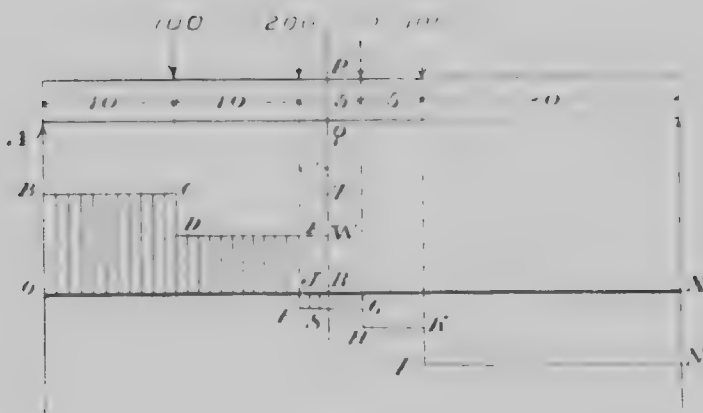


Fig. 11.

In Fig. 41 the left-hand abutment is at 100.

$$A = 45,100 - 35,200 + 1,250 = 10,150$$

265 pounds.

Let x = V.S.F. at any section.

Between A and first load, $x = A - 265$

Between first and second load, $x = 265 - 100 = 165$

Between second and third load,

$$x = 265 - 100 = 165$$

Between third and fourth load,

$$x = 265 - 100 - 200 = 55$$

Between fourth load and right-hand abutment,

$$x = 265 - 100 - 200 - 50 = 15$$

Plotting these ordinates with OX as base line, the V.S.F. diagram of the form $BC, DE, FG, HK, \dots$ is obtained, such that the ordinate to the diagram immediately beneath any section of the beam represents the value of the V.S.F. at that section.

It will be noticed that **the change in value of shearing force** from a section immediately to the left of any load to a section just to the right of the load **is equal to the magnitude of the load itself**. For instance, in the last numerical case, the changes represented by CD, EF, GH , and KL are each equal in magnitude to the loads immediately above these lines.

Representation of Bending Moment at any Section of a Beam.

Let PQ (Fig. 41) be the section, the B.M. at which it is required to represent. PQ produced intersects the V.S.F. diagram in RS .

Let PQ be three feet to the right of the 200-pound load.

Produce BC and DE to intersect PQ at T and W .

$$\text{B.M. at } PQ = A \times 23 = 100 \times 13 = 200 \times 3.$$

$$\text{But } A \times 23 = OB \times BT = \text{area } OT.$$

$$100 \times 13 = CD \times CT = \text{area } DT.$$

$$200 \times 3 = EF \times EW = \text{area } FW.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, B.M.} &= \text{area } OT + \text{area } DT + \text{area } FW \\ &= \text{area } OBCDEJ = \text{area } JFSR \\ &= \text{area of V.S.F. diagram to left of } PQ. \end{aligned}$$

It must, of course, be remembered that areas above OX are considered positive and those below OX negative. Keeping this last statement in mind, it is seen that

The area of the V.S.F. diagram to the left of any section represents the B.M. at that section.

The B.M. at any section is always positive, for the positive area of the V.S.F. diagram to the left of any section is, with one exception, always greater than the negative area to the left of the same section. It may be proven geometrically that the positive and negative areas to the left of the right-hand abutment are equal; hence, the B.M. at this abutment is zero. The B.M. at the left-hand abutment is also zero, since there is no area of the V.S.F. diagram to the left of that section.

Section at which Maximum B.M. Occurs for a Single Load.

ABDE (Fig. 42) is the V.S.F. diagram for the load W . Consider areas above OE positive, below OE negative.

The B.M. at any section NP to the left of the load is represented by the area ANPO.

The B.M. at any section GL, to the right of the load, is represented by the area ABCO — CGLD.

Both of these areas are less than the positive area ABCO. Therefore, the area ABCO must represent the greatest B.M.

But ABCO represents the B.M. at a section infinitely close to BC, but still to the left of the load. Practically, this is the section BC. It follows that:

The Maximum B.M. for a single load in a given position occurs at a section directly under the load.

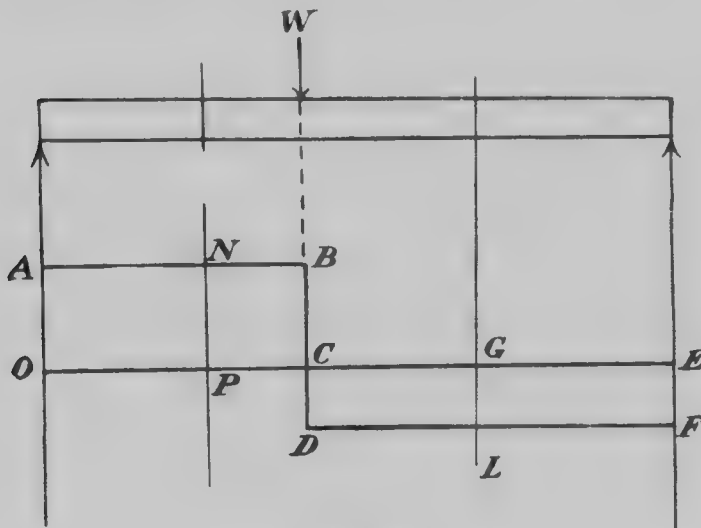


Fig. 42.

Uniformly Distributed Load.

A uniformly distributed load is one such that, no matter how small a portion of the area loaded is considered, the load per **unit area** is always the same.

Since the discussion is confined to co-planar forces, a uniformly distributed load in the following problems will mean a load of so much per **unit length**.

It can be pointed out that the position of the center of gravity of a distributed load is very often applied to a concentrated load placed very close to the center of gravity. For instance, a crowd of people standing in a place is represented by a concentrated load of 1000 pounds placed at the center of gravity of the crowd. This is only the case if the crowd is not pushed against a wall or a fence, as placed very close to one wall. Hence, the above is a rather gross simplification.

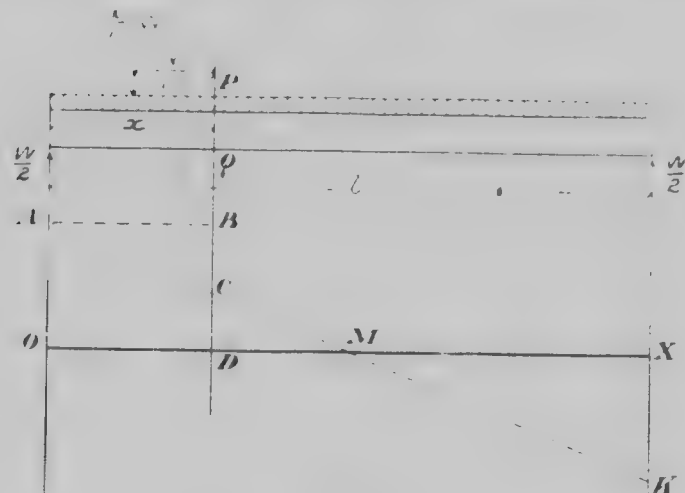


Fig. 43.

To Trace the Variation of V.S.F. and B.M. in a Beam Supporting a Uniformly Distributed Load of W Pounds.

Let the hatched area of Fig. 43 represent the load uniformly distributed over the entire length of the beam.

$$\text{Total load} = W \text{ lbs.} \quad \text{At beam reactions} = \frac{W}{2}$$

$$\text{Load per unit length} = \frac{W}{l}$$

Take any section PQ at a distance x from the left-hand support.

$$\text{V.S.F. at PQ} = \text{downward deflection} - \text{upward load to left of PQ.}$$

$$\text{Load to left of PQ} = \frac{W}{l} x.$$

$$\text{Therefore, } x = \frac{W - W}{2} = \frac{x}{1}$$

If the values of x be plotted with OX as axis of x , the curve will be a straight line such that, as in the previous cases, the value of the V.S.F. at any section will be directly under that section. This is shown by the line AK .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From the } \frac{W - W}{2} &= \frac{x}{1} \text{ (1)} \\ \text{When } x = 0, x &= \frac{W}{2} = OA \\ \text{When } x = l, x &= \frac{W}{2} = NK. \\ \text{When } x = 0, x &= \frac{1}{2} = OM \end{aligned}$$

From this it is seen that the V.S.F. varies from a positive value of $\frac{W}{2}$ at the left-hand abutment, to a value

$\frac{W}{2}$ at the right-hand abutment, being equal to zero at the centre of the beam.

In order to consider the variation in B.M., let the load to the left of **any** section PQ be replaced by an

equivalent concentrated load of magnitude $\frac{x}{1}W$, which

will act at a distance $\frac{x}{1}$ from PQ as dotted in Fig. 43.

$$\text{B.M. at } PQ = \frac{W}{2} \cdot x - \frac{W}{1} \cdot x \cdot \frac{x}{2} \text{ (2.)}$$

Produce PQ to intersect the V.S.F. diagram at C and D . Draw AB perpendicular to PQ .

OD and DC are co-ordinates to a point on AK below PQ

$$OD = x, \quad AC = DC$$

$$\text{Therefore, from (1.), } x = DC = \frac{W}{2} \quad \text{..... (3.)}$$

From the figure it is seen that

$$CB = DB = DC = OA = DC \quad \text{..... (4.)}$$

$$\text{But } OA = \frac{W}{2}$$

Substitute in (4.) this value of OA , and also the value of DC found in (3.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } CB &= \frac{W}{2} = \frac{W}{2} = \frac{W}{2} \\ &= \frac{W}{2} \\ &= \frac{W}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Tabulating these results

$$\begin{aligned} &W \\ &OA = \\ &2 \\ &x = OD = AB \\ &W \\ &x = CB \\ &1 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting these values into (2)

$$\begin{aligned} BM &= OA + OD + CB \\ &= \frac{W}{2} + \frac{W}{2} + \frac{W}{2} \\ &= \frac{3W}{2} \\ &= 1.5W \\ &= 1.5W \end{aligned}$$

The BM is identical with the value obtained at the end of the first method, viz. $1.5W$, and is therefore correct.

It is seen that the maximum B.M. for a beam supporting a uniformly distributed load over its entire length is at the centre of the beam, for the area AMC is the greatest positive area.

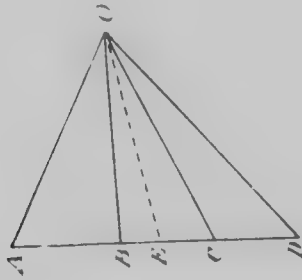


Fig. 44 b.

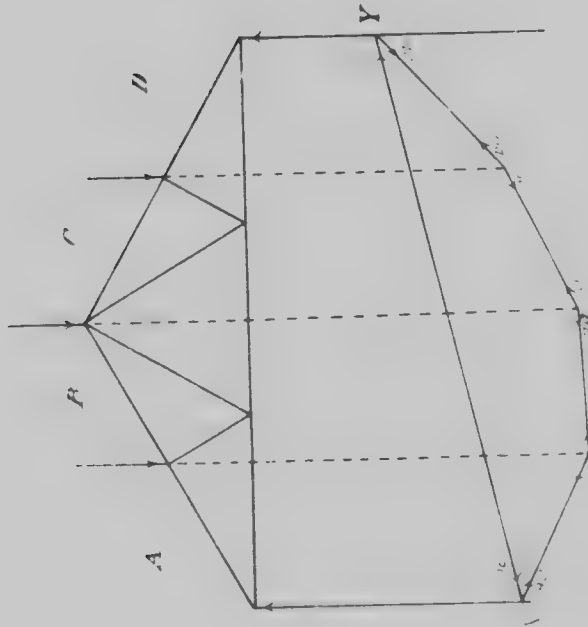


Fig. 44 a.

Graphical Determination of Abutment Reactions.

In the case of pinned supports, the abutment reactions there can be determined either graphically or analytically. The case, however, of graphical method of determining the reactions, the procedure being as follows:

Let Fig. 14 represent an arch structure resting upon two fixed abutments and supporting the loads AB , BC , CD , etc., as indicated, whatever. These loads, together with the pressure of the earth on piers DE and EA , are considered.

The vector polygon AB , BC , and CD (Fig. 14b), is considered to represent the three loads, and, since the forces acting on the structure are in equilibrium, the vector polygon is a closed one. The only forces left to be considered are the reactions at the supports. It follows, then, that between D and A there is a resultant force E , such that DE and EA counter the resultant force E . Therefore, if plotted, the reaction E must

close the polygon O to E , as shown on O to A , B , C , and D . As the pressure of the earth on the piers DE and EA is represented by the triangle ODE , the triangle ODE is closed by balancing BC and CD by BO and OC . Produced from the reaction on OA and DO to intersect the line EA at N and A , respectively. Now, to find the direction of the point E between D and A as shown in Fig. 14c, DE and EA will be inclined by EO , OD , and AO , OE , respectively. If the directions of the forces are known at N and A for these forces, it is clear that the only possible reaction inclined EO and OE will be in the same direction, and it is found that the third side polygon is closed in the line NE . This determines the point E , being in order that the forces EO and OE are in the direction NE , the line joining O to E must be parallel to NE , i.e., to locate E , through O draw **OE parallel to NE , intersecting DA at E** . DE and EA diagrammatically represent the reactions.

Relation between Bending Moment and the Funicular Polygon.

Let Fig. 15 represent an arch supporting any general loading AB , BC , and CD . For the right of the figure is the vector polygon AB , BC , CD , DE , and EA , the resultant reaction DE and EA having been found

graphically by means of the funicular polygon, as explained in the last problem. It is required to find the value of the B.M. at any section (1).

Produce (1.) to intersect the funicular polygon at G and K. Let the perpendicular distance of the pole O from AB be Z.

The B.M. at (1.) = Algebraic sum of the moments of EA and AB about any point in (1.).
 = Moment of the resultant of EA and AB about any point in (1.).

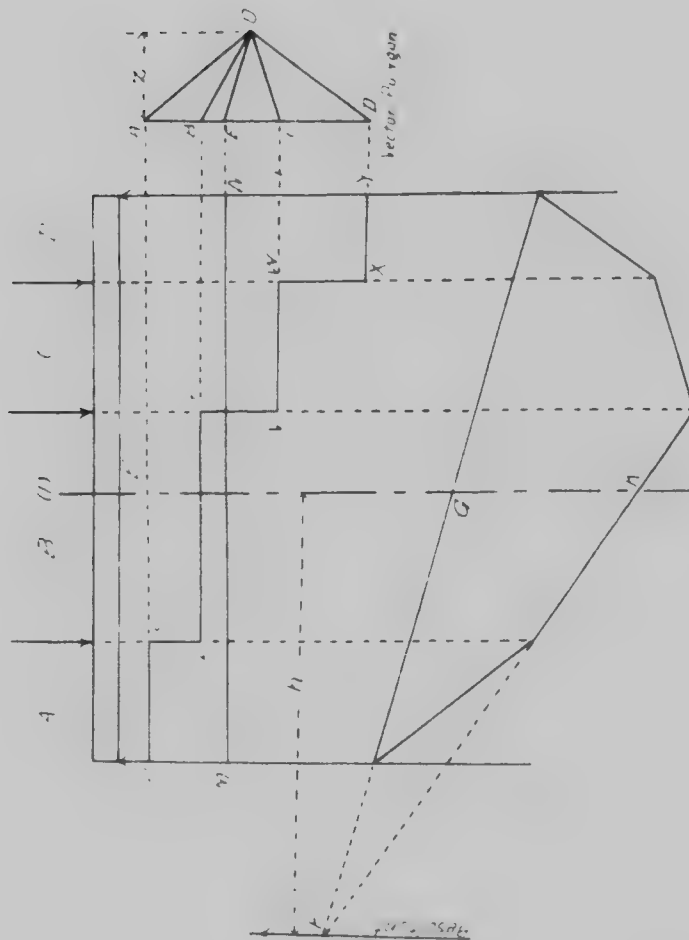


FIG. 45.

To locate the resultant of EA and AB: i.e., the resultant of all forces to the left of plane (1.):

In discussing the properties of the Equilibrium or Funicular Polygon, it was shown that if a section be taken through two members of the frame, the resultant of the external forces to either side of the section acts through the intersection of the cut sides of the polygon. Section (1.) cuts two sides of the polygon at G and K. If, then, the two cut sides be produced to intersect at E, as indicated in Fig. 45, it is evident that the resultant of the forces EA and AB must act through this point. But from the Vector Polygon it is seen that the resultant of EA and AB is represented by EB. Drawing through E a line parallel to EB, the true position of the required resultant is found. The moment of this resultant about a point in section (1.) will give the desired B.M. Let h be the distance of this resultant from section (1.)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Now,} \quad EG &= EO, \\ EK &= OB, \\ GK &= BL.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, Δ 's EKG and BEO are similar.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then,} \quad EB &= \text{altitude } z, \\ GK &= \text{altitude } h.\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Or, } EB \times h = GK \times z \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

But EB represents the resultant of the forces to the left of section (1.).

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Therefore, } EB \times h &= \text{B.M.} \dots\dots\dots (4) \\ \text{i.e., from (3.) B.M.} &= GK \times z \dots\dots\dots (5)\end{aligned}$$

Now, GK is called the ordinate of the funicular polygon at section (1.), and it is seen that the B.M. is represented by this ordinate multiplied by a constant quantity z ; so that, **provided the proper scale is used, the B.M. at any section is represented by the ordinate of the funicular polygon immediately beneath the section.**

To Find the Scale of B.M.'s to be Used with Ordinates of the Funicular Polygon.

From (4.) in the last discussion

$$\text{B.M.} = \text{EB} \times h, \\ (\text{EB in inches} \times \text{scale of forces}) (h \text{ in inches} \times \text{scale of dimensions}).$$

$$\text{EB} \times h (\text{scale of forces} \times \text{scale of dimensions}).$$

$$\text{But from (3.) } \text{EB} \times h = \text{GK} \times z.$$

Therefore, $\text{B.M.} = \text{GK} (z \times \text{scale of forces} \times \text{scale of dimensions})$; i.e., the scale to use on GK in order to find the actual value of the B.M. is **$(z \times \text{scale of forces} \times \text{scale of dimensions})$** , z being taken in inches if the scales are per inch.

Caution:

In order to get a good working scale of B.M.'s, the pole O should be so chosen with reference to AD, that z will be a quantity which will, when multiplied by the scales of forces and dimensions, give an even quantity suitable for use with ordinary scales.

A Graphical Method of Constructing the V.S.F. Diagram for Concentrated Loads.

Let the vector diagram of the forces acting on the beam be drawn to one side and slightly below the representation of the beam as shown in Fig. 45. It will be assumed that the abutment reactions DE and EA have been found. From E draw a line ENM parallel to the longitudinal axis of the beam, and intersecting the abutment reactions at N and M.

The V.S.F. at any section between the left-hand abutment and the first load is equal to the left-hand abutment reaction, the value of which reaction is represented by EA. Therefore, if the scale of shearing forces be chosen the same as the scale of forces used in constructing the vector diagram, the ordinates from MN to the line PS, which is drawn parallel to MN through A, will represent the V.S.F. values at any section between the left-hand abutment and the first load, for these ordinates will each be equal to EA, which is the value of the V.S.F. between the sections indicated.



V.S.F. AND B.M. FOR MOVING LOADS ON A BEAM.

To Trace the Variation in V.S.F. and B.M. for a Single Moving Load.

Let a load of W pounds travel over the beam to a position x feet from the left-hand end, as is represented in Fig. 46. The left-hand abutment reaction A is then $\frac{l-x}{l}W$.

RBDH is the V.S.F. diagram for the load in this position.

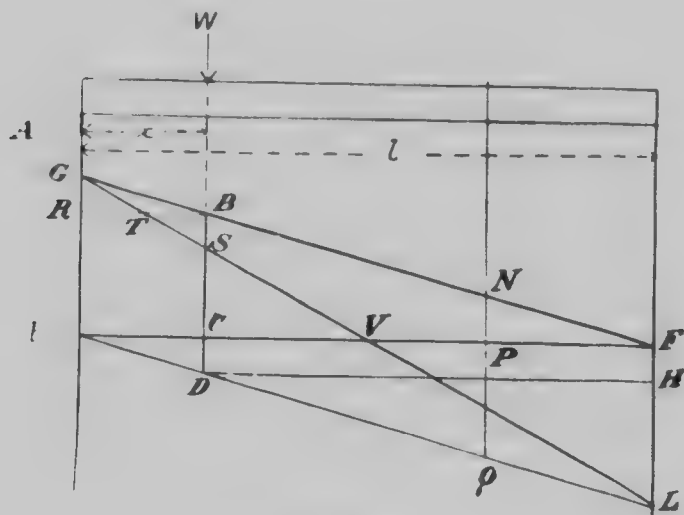


Fig. 46.

Now, since the load is a moving one, it would be extremely inconvenient to draw a series of V.S.F. diagrams for many or all positions of the load.

Looking at the diagram RBDH, which is a perfectly general one, it is seen that because RB and DH are parallel to HL, BE represents the value of the V.S.F. at any point to the left of the load and CD the V.S.F. at any point to the right of the load.

But V.S.F. at any plane to left of load = $\frac{W}{l}$
 $\times \frac{W}{l} = \frac{W^2}{l^2}$ and V.S.F. at any plane to right of
 load = $\frac{W}{l} \times \frac{W}{l} = \frac{W^2}{l^2}$

If, then, ordinates $y = \frac{W^2}{l^2}$ be plotted under the load as it moves to different positions, so that y represents the value of the V.S.F. at any plane to the left of the load, and ordinates $y' = \frac{W^2}{l^2}$ be also plotted underneath the load in the same series of positions, so that y' represents the V.S.F. at all planes to the right of the load, the loci of the points so obtained will be the straight lines GF and EL, respectively. y will, of course, be negative for $W > \frac{W}{l}$.

GFEL is a V.S.F. diagram for the moving load W . Supposing it is desired to find the V.S.F. at a plane NQ (Fig. 1) when the load is over BD, when the load is over NQ.

1. The V.S.F. at NQ when the load is over BD is represented by CD, for CD represents the V.S.F. for all planes to right of load when load is over BD.

2. When the load is directly over NQ, the V.S.F. at NQ is indeterminate, but NP represents the V.S.F. at all places to left of NQ, and PQ represents the V.S.F. at all places to right of NQ. These results may be arrived at analytically by letting x be the distance of the load from the left-hand abutment.

For any plane to the left of the load

$$\text{V.S.F.} = \frac{1}{l} \times \frac{x}{l} W$$

For any plane to the right of the load

$$\text{V.S.F.} = \frac{1}{l} \times \frac{W - x}{l} W$$

To Find the Maximum Possible B.M. as the Load Moves Over Beam.

Let the load be in any position CD (Fig. 10). Let G be the centre of gravity of the load. The B.M. at any section E under the load is the sum of the moments of the load and the reaction R about E . The load is at a distance CE to the right of E , and the reaction R is at a distance BE to the left of E . The B.M. at E for the load in this position is therefore, $R \times BE - W \times CE$, where W is the weight of the load.

Taking the load in a position represented in Fig. 10, the B.M. for this position is represented by $RBCE$.

Let G be the

The area $GSCE$ is then equal to the area $RBCE$, for the area $RTSCE$ is common to both, and the ΔGRT is equal to the ΔTBS .

Therefore, the area $GSCE$ represents the maximum B.M. for the load in that position. In the same way, for the load in other positions, the maximum B.M. is represented by the area between GL and EE to the left of the section under the load.

It is seen that the greatest B.M. that will occur is represented by the positive area GVE . This area represents the B.M. when the load is at the centre of the beam.

Hence

The maximum possible B.M. for a single moving load occurs directly under the load when it is at the centre of the beam.

CHAPTER XI

PULLEY SYSTEMS.

It is the intention, in the following discussion, to find out how one or more pulley blocks may be most advantageously arranged in order to lift or move a given weight.

In most of the problems the ropes of the system are assumed to be parallel to one another. This, of course, is not quite true in practice, but the error arising from such an assumption is so slight that it may be neglected, together with the errors that arise from assuming that the sheaves have frictionless bearings and that their weights are negligible.

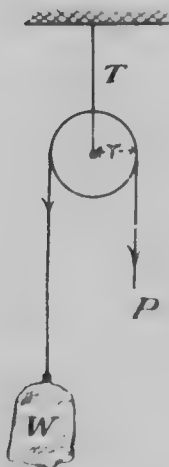


Fig. 47.

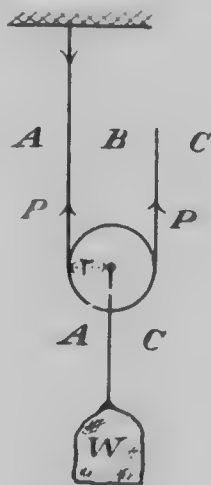


Fig. 48.

Mechanical Advantage.

The mechanical advantage of a system of pulleys is the ratio of the weight lifted to the force exerted on the free end of the rope.

The mechanical advantage is sometimes referred to as the **efficiency of the system**.

Let T be the tension in the rope, W the weight lifted, P the force exerted on the free end of the rope, and A the mechanical advantage of the system. Then $A = \frac{W}{P}$. The mechanical advantage of a system of pulleys is the ratio of the weight lifted to the force exerted on the free end of the rope.

the weight W in equilibrium. Any greater force than P will lift W .

Consider the pulley as a rigid body. It is acted upon by three forces, P , W , and T , in equilibrium.

Take moments about the centre of rotation of the sheave.

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma M &= M_P + M_W + M_T = 0 \\ P \cdot r + W \cdot r - T \cdot r &= 0 \\ P + W - T &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

I.e., with such an arrangement of the block the force exerted at the free end of the rope to keep the system in equilibrium must be equal to the weight.

$$\text{Mechanical Advantage} = \frac{W}{P} = 1.$$

II. Let the block be attached to the weight, and one end of the rope made fast to some abutment as represented in Fig. 48.

Consider the pulley as a rigid body. It is acted upon by the three forces AB , BC , and CA (using Bow's Notation) in equilibrium.

Take moments about the axis of rotation as in I.

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma M &= M_{AB} + M_{BC} + M_{CA} = 0 \\ AB \cdot r - BC \cdot r - CA \cdot r &= 0 \\ AB - BC - CA &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

If a force of P pounds be applied at the free end of the rope, then $BC = P = AB$.

To find the magnitude of P -

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma Y &= Y_{AB} + Y_{BC} + Y_{CA} = 0 \\ P + P - W &= 0 \\ P + P &= W\end{aligned}$$

$$W = 2P$$

$$M_A = 0 \quad \therefore A = 0 \quad \therefore T = 0$$

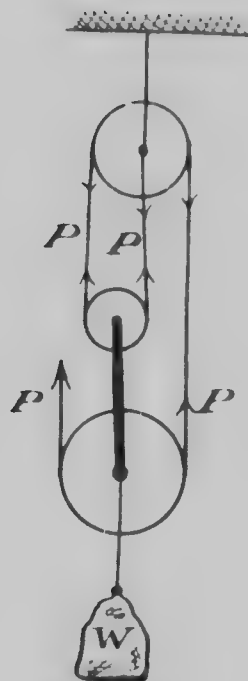
$$P = \frac{W}{2}$$

III. Let the block be attached to the weight, and one end of the rope made fast to some abutment as represented in Fig. 49. If a force of P pounds be applied at the free end of the rope, then $BC = P = AB$.

The mechanical advantage of the system is the ratio of the weight lifted to the effort applied. For the system shown, the mechanical advantage is the ratio of the weight lifted to the effort applied. For the system shown, the mechanical advantage is the ratio of the weight lifted to the effort applied.

$$\text{Mechanical Advantage} = \frac{P}{W} = \frac{W}{P}$$

$$\text{Mechanical Advantage} = \frac{W}{P} = \frac{W}{P}$$



No. 19.

The mechanical advantage of the system is the ratio of the weight lifted to the effort applied. For the system shown, the mechanical advantage is the ratio of the weight lifted to the effort applied.

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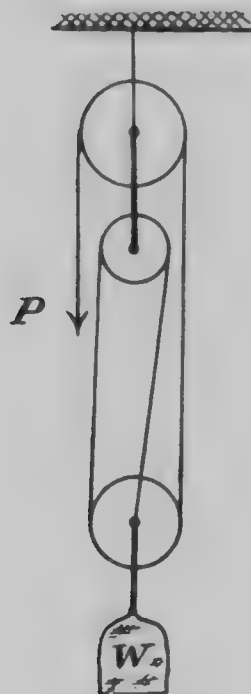


Fig. 50.

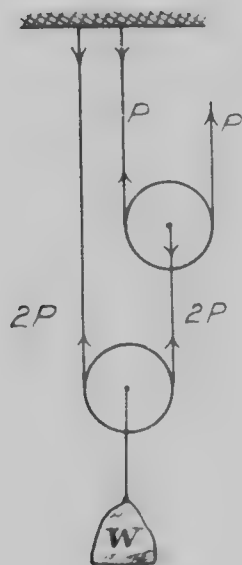


Fig. 51.

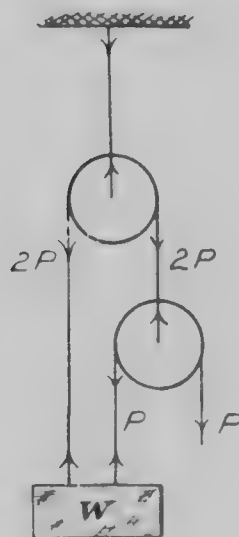
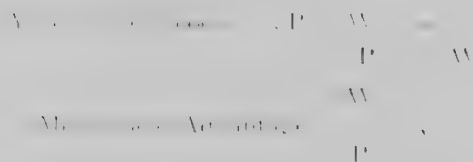
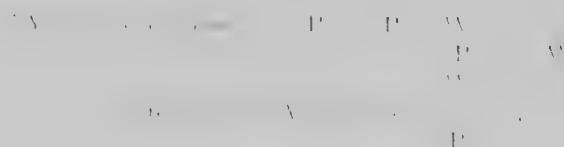


Fig. 52.



Key to Fig. 1. — P = Pulley; W = weight. The rope is fixed to the ceiling, passes under the pulley, then up over the pulley, then down under the pulley, and finally up over the pulley. The weight is attached to the bottom of the rope.



Key to Fig. 2. — P = Pulley; W = weight. The rope is fixed to the ceiling, passes under the pulley, then up over the pulley, then down under the pulley, and finally up over the pulley. The weight is attached to the bottom of the rope.

The Weston Differential Pulley

The Weston differential pulley is a very simple and efficient device for lifting heavy weights. It consists of two pulleys, one fixed to a ceiling and the other attached to a weight. A rope is fixed to the ceiling, passes under the fixed pulley, then up over the movable pulley, then down under the fixed pulley, and finally up over the movable pulley. The weight is attached to the bottom of the rope. The advantage of this system is that it allows a person to lift a weight that is four times as heavy as the weight of the rope. This is because the rope is supported by four points, and the weight is only supported by one point. The Weston differential pulley is a very useful device for lifting heavy weights in a safe and efficient manner.

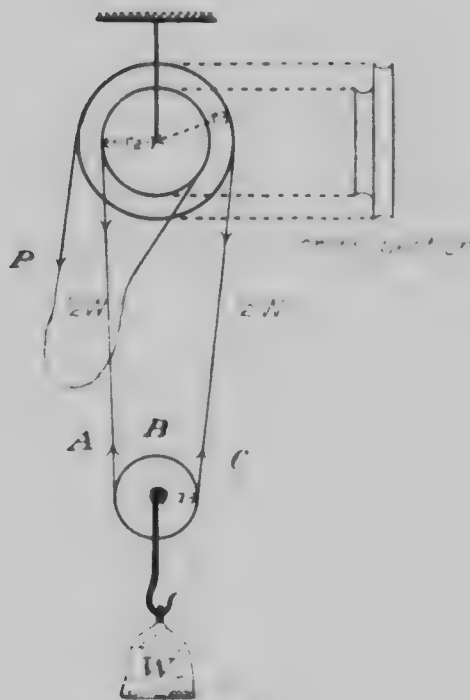
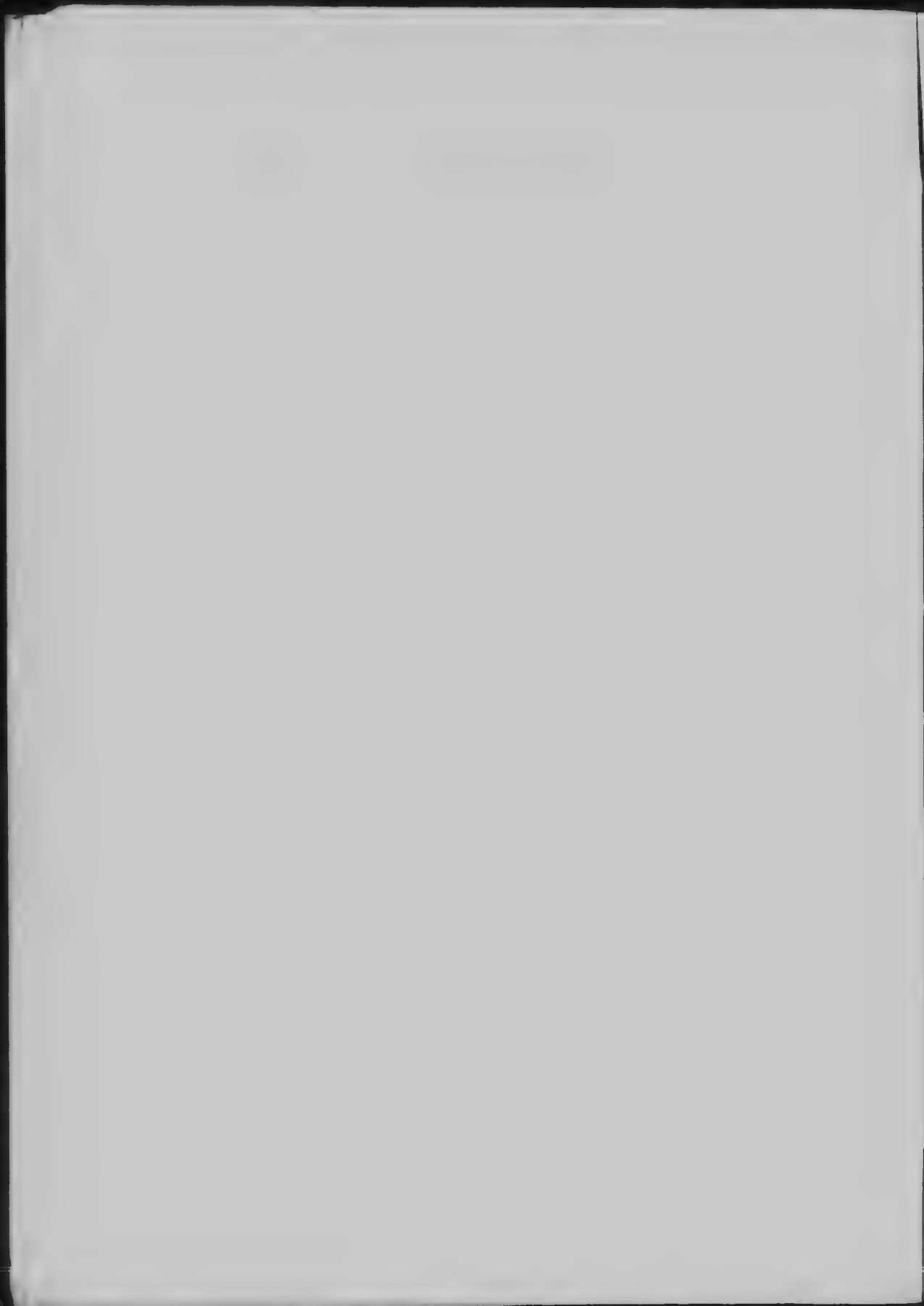


Fig. 53

Force	AB	AC	AD	
Value	10	10	10	
Angle	45°	45°	45°	
Resultant	AB	BC	AC	
Value	10	10	10	
Angle	45°	45°	45°	
Resultant	AB	BC	AC	
Value	10	10	10	
Angle	45°	45°	45°	
Resultant	AB	BC	AC	
Value	10	10	10	
Angle	45°	45°	45°	

The force P is applied to the rope at the point A. The weight W is applied to the pulley at the point B. The force Q is applied to the pulley at the point C. The force R is applied to the pulley at the point D. The force S is applied to the pulley at the point E. The force T is applied to the pulley at the point F. The force U is applied to the pulley at the point G. The force V is applied to the pulley at the point H. The force W is applied to the pulley at the point I. The force X is applied to the pulley at the point J. The force Y is applied to the pulley at the point K. The force Z is applied to the pulley at the point L.

fall into the trap of thinking that by doing comparatively little **work** at one end of the system that a large amount of **work** can be done at the other end. The work done at both ends of the system is exactly the same in theory. Practically, there will be a mechanical loss due to friction, etc., between the free end and the weight being lifted.



CHAPTER VII

FRICTION.

Limiting Friction.—The friction which exists between two bodies in contact, and which prevents them from moving, is called **Limiting Friction**. The name **Limiting Friction** is used to denote this maximum value.

There are two kinds of friction, **Sliding** and **Rolling**. Sliding friction is the friction which exists between two bodies in contact, and which prevents them from moving. Rolling friction is the friction which exists between two bodies in contact, and which prevents them from rolling.

Friction always acts in such a way as to oppose motion.

The following cases should be examined, and the friction in each case should be determined.

- (a) Ladder resting on a rough floor.
- (b) Iron wheel rolling on an elastic plane.
- (c) Rubber-tired wheel rolling on a non-elastic plane.
- (d) Rope with a weight on each end, one greater than the other, stretched over a fixed pulley. (a.) Rope at rest on the point of moving. (b.) Rope moving.
- (e) Rod resting on a table pulled at one end perpendicularly to its length.
- (f) Ring laid on a rough, horizontal table and pulled at any point tangential to ring so that ring is at rest on point of motion.

The laws of rolling friction have not been fully investigated, and will not be discussed here. Those of sliding friction are more fully understood, being based, however, on experiment, and being true only within certain limits.

The chief laws are:
(1) When motion is just about to take place, there is an approximately constant ratio between the friction and the **normal pressure** between the two bodies, which is called the **Coefficient of Statical Friction**.

This ratio is usually a small fraction, and tables are constructed empirically, giving values for different bodies.



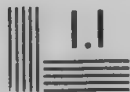
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART



1.0

28

25



1.1



2.0



1.8



1.25



1.4



1.6



4.5

As yet, other factors, such as the coefficient of static friction, the nature of the surfaces and the Coefficient of Dynamic Friction. This statement is true only for small velocities.

(2) Friction depends upon the materials used and on their temperature.

Let Fig. 54 represent a body in equilibrium resting on an inclined plane, its weight W acting as indicated through the centre of gravity. There is also acting on the body the reaction, N , of the plane perpendicular to

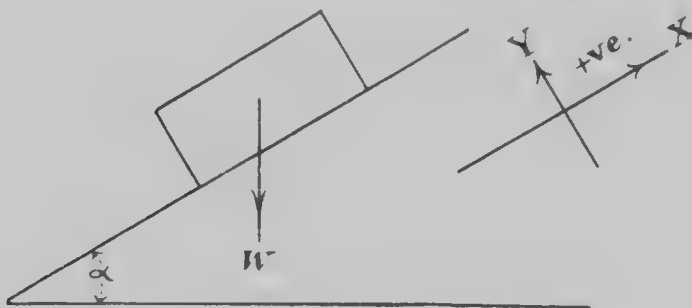


Fig. 54.

the surface of contact and the friction F . These forces acting on the body are in equilibrium. Therefore, $\sum X = 0$; $\sum Y = 0$; and $\sum M = 0$.

Taking the axis of X parallel to surface of plane as indicated

$$\begin{aligned}\sum X &= -W \cos (90^\circ - \alpha) + F = 0, \\ &F = W \sin \alpha, \\ &F \\ \text{or } W &= \dots\dots\dots (1.) \\ &\sin \alpha\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= W \sin (90^\circ - \alpha) + N = 0, \\ N &= W \cos \alpha, \dots\dots\dots (2.)\end{aligned}$$

Substitute value of W from (1.) into (2.)

$$\begin{aligned}N &= \frac{F}{\sin \alpha} \cos \alpha \\ &F \\ \text{or } &\tan \alpha, \dots\dots\dots (3.) \\ N\end{aligned}$$

Now, imagine the plane as being gradually tipped up so that the angle of inclination α becomes greater and greater. A position will be eventually reached beyond which the plane cannot be raised without causing the body to slip. The plane is then said to be inclined at the "angle of repose."

Definition:—

If a body rest on a plane surface, the Angle of Repose is that angle beyond which the plane cannot be inclined without the body moving down the plane.

When the plane reaches the angle of repose from (3),

$$\frac{F}{N} = \tan \alpha \text{ angle of repose}$$

$\frac{F}{N}$, in this particular instance, is known as the **coefficient of friction**, usually designated by the Greek letter μ .

Coefficient of Friction μ tangent of angle of repose.

From the previous discussion it is seen that if a body rest on a plane surface which is inclined at an angle less than the angle of repose (sometimes called the angle of friction), the body will not slip down the plane. If now, some external force be applied to the body so as to cause the body to be **just on the point of moving** either up or down the plane, the resistance offered by friction can in every such case be experimentally shown to be of a magnitude given by

$$F = N\mu \dots\dots\dots (4.)$$

Where F = frictional resistance.

N pressure normal to the plane.

μ coefficient of friction for plane and body.

Problems.

A body weighing 100 pounds rests on a plane surface which is inclined to the horizontal at an angle of 30° , the angle of repose for the plane and body being 45° . Find what force acting parallel to the plane will

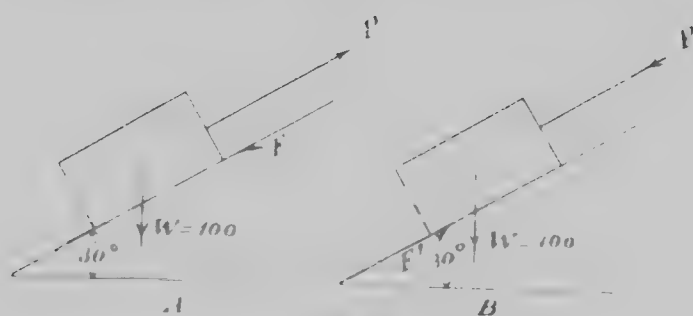


Fig. 50.

From the triangle ABC we find $AC = AB \sin 30^\circ = 100 \times \frac{1}{2} = 50$. We find BC from the triangle ABC by the Pythagorean theorem: $BC = \sqrt{AB^2 - AC^2} = \sqrt{100^2 - 50^2} = 86.6$. The weight W of the body is equal to the sum of the components AC and BC of the weight W along the incline. The weight W of the body is equal to the sum of the components AC and BC of the weight W along the incline.

Since the weight W of the body is equal to the sum of the components AC and BC of the weight W along the incline, we have

$$W = AC + BC = 50 + 86.6 = 136.6$$

$$W = 136.6$$

$$W = 136.6$$

$$W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6$$

$$W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6$$

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$$W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6 \quad W = 136.6$$

Returning to Fig. 50 B for case 2, P represents a required force, i.e., F , which in this case acts against or against the tendency to motion, the friction

$$2N = N \sin 30^\circ = N \times \frac{1}{2} = 50$$

$$W \cos 60^\circ = P = F = 50 \text{ pounds}$$

$$F = N \sin 30^\circ = 50 \times \frac{1}{2} = 25 \text{ pounds}$$

$$100 = P = 50 \times \frac{1}{2} = 25$$

$$P = 50 \times \frac{1}{2} = 25$$

A body is placed on a smooth inclined plane, the angle of inclination being 45° . A force P is applied to the body, the direction of which is parallel to the inclined plane. The body is in equilibrium. Find the magnitude of P . The weight of the body is $W = 50$. The angle of inclination of the inclined plane is 45° .

The forces acting on the body are shown in Fig. 56.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum N_x &= 0 \\ \sum N_y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

From the first equation we have

It is required to find the magnitude of the force P . The weight of the body is $W = 50$. The angle of inclination of the inclined plane is 45° .

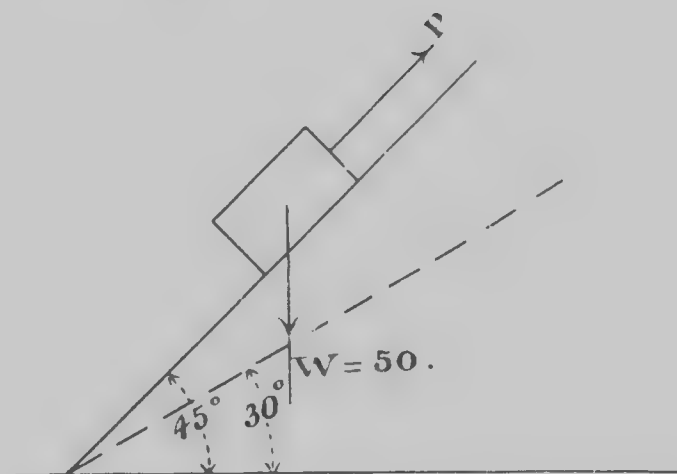


Fig. 56.

Fig. 56 represents the condition of equilibrium.

$$\sum N_x = \sum N_y = \sum N_z = 0$$

$$50 \cos 45^\circ - P = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$P = 50 \cos 45^\circ$$

$$50 \cos 45^\circ = \frac{50}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{50}{1.414} = 35.3$$

Substituting this value of P in to (7.3),

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - P &= \frac{50 - P}{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{3}} \\
 P &= \frac{50}{\sqrt{2}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

CHAPTER VIII

WIND PRESSURE.

Pressure on Surfaces Normal to Direction of Motion.

Pressure on a surface is exerted in the direction of the motion of the fluid, and is proportional to the area of the surface, and to the square of the velocity of the fluid. The pressure on a surface is also proportional to the density of the fluid.

Let V be the velocity of the fluid, A the area of the surface, and P the pressure on the surface. Then the pressure on the surface is given by the equation

Let V be the velocity of the fluid, A the area of the surface, and P the pressure on the surface. Then the pressure on the surface is given by the equation

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A$$

where ρ is the density of the fluid. The pressure on a surface is also proportional to the square of the velocity of the fluid. The pressure on a surface is also proportional to the density of the fluid.

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A$$

Let V be the velocity of the fluid, A the area of the surface, and P the pressure on the surface. Then the pressure on the surface is given by the equation

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A$$

Now let us consider the pressure on a surface which is inclined to the direction of the motion of the fluid. Let θ be the angle between the surface and the direction of the motion. Then the pressure on the surface is given by the equation

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A \cos^2 \theta$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A \cos^2 \theta$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A \cos^2 \theta$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 A \cos^2 \theta$$

PROBLEMS IN APPLIED STATICS.

CHAPTER XI.

MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS.

If the Vector Polygon be drawn for a set of forces which are in equilibrium, the polygon must close.

Let the student draw a vector polygon for the forces shown in Fig. 58. The forces are in equilibrium, and the polygon must close. The student should also draw a vector polygon for the forces shown in Fig. 59. The forces are not in equilibrium, and the polygon will not close.



Fig. 58.

The student should also draw the vector polygon for the forces indicated in the Statics Diagrams. Fig. 59 is given for an example. About 3,000 pounds of weight is shown.

the resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A . The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A .

The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A . The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A .

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The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A . The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A .

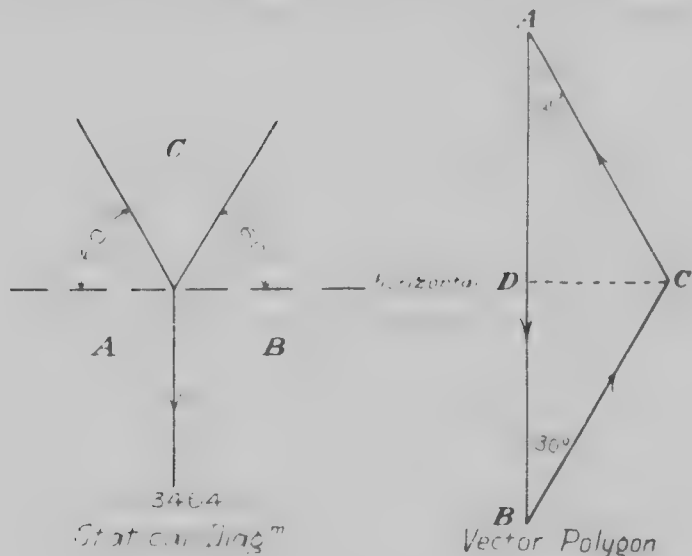


FIG. 59.

FIG. 60.

The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A . The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A .

The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A . The resultant of the forces AB and CA acting on the point A is the force AC acting on the point A .

of the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force. The perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force is the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force. The perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force is the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force.

In the diagram, the force is represented by the vector BC and the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force is represented by the vector CA . In the diagram, it is seen that both BC and CA are perpendicular to each other. The force is represented by the vector BC and the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force is represented by the vector CA . The force is represented by the vector BC and the perpendicular distance from the origin to the line of action of the force is represented by the vector CA .

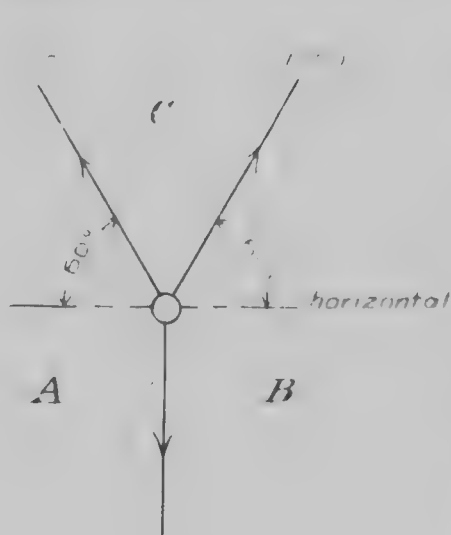


Fig. 61.



Fig. 62.

In order to find the magnitude of BC and CA , draw CD perpendicular on AB .

$$\begin{aligned} AD &= DB \\ \text{Since } AB &= 34.64 \text{ ft.} \\ AD &= 17.32 \text{ ft.} \\ DB &= 17.32 \text{ ft.} \\ \text{In } \triangle ABC, \\ \angle A &= 30^\circ \\ \angle B &= 30^\circ \\ \angle C &= 120^\circ \end{aligned}$$

The horizontal component of the force BC is $BC \cos 60^\circ = 1,000 \times 0.5 = 500$ pounds.

The vertical component is $BC \sin 60^\circ = 1,000 \times 0.866 = 866$ pounds.

At point A , there is a horizontal force of 500 pounds acting to the right and a vertical force of 866 pounds acting upwards.

The truss is in equilibrium, therefore the sum of the forces in each direction must be zero.

Let Figure 64 represent the given data. The truss is a simple truss, and the forces are applied at the joints. The truss is supported at points A and B . A force of 1,000 pounds is applied at the outside joint C as shown. It is required to find the stress in the members of the truss.

Consider the forces acting at the point ABC (Fig. 65). There is a known force BC of 1,000 pounds acting vertically downward, and two unknown forces



Fig. 64.

Fig. 65.

Fig. 66.

CA and AB , whose lines of action are known. The Static Diagram (Fig. 64) represents this condition of forces.

From point B (Fig. 65) construct BC to represent the known force BC .

Now, since the forces under consideration are in equilibrium, their vector polygon must close. Therefore, from C and B (Fig. 65) draw lines to represent the forces CA and AB , respectively. These lines will intersect at A . Therefore, CA and AB are the forces in the members CA and AB , the stress in each member being the same as the force in the member. The stress in CA is 500 pounds and the stress in AB is 866 pounds.

For the triangle BCA (Fig. 79), the forces acting on it are the weight of the triangle, the force in BC , the force in CA , and the force in AB . The force in BC is the same as the force in CA , possibly in the opposite direction.

But the triangle is in equilibrium. Therefore the sum of the moments of the forces deduced in the preceding paragraph about the point C is equal to zero, and the force in AB is equal to the weight of the triangle.

The force in CA is, the force in BC , is, acting to the right to the extent of 1,000 pounds, and the force in AB is, acting to the right to the extent of 1,000 pounds.

If a set of forces is in equilibrium, the algebraic sum of the moments of the forces about any point is equal to zero.

Fig. 80 represents a diagram of the lever system existing in a weighing scale. Of course, the construction is not a constructional detail of the

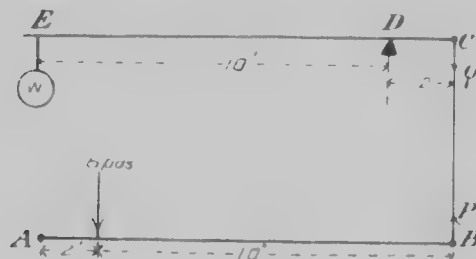


Fig. 80.

scale as represented in such a figure, but nevertheless it illustrates the principle involved in the weighing scale, and is a diagram for testing the student's powers.

AB and EC are two levers, the former being hinged at A and the latter resting on a knife edge D . The vertical rod BC is connected to these two levers at B and C . The weight W is placed on the lever EC .

A force of six pounds is exerted on the lever AB at a distance of two inches from the hinge A . What is the magnitude of the weight W placed on the upper lever at E such that the whole system is in equilibrium?

Consider the lever AB . It is acted upon by three forces, the weight of six pounds, acting to the

vertical force P at B , and the reaction at the hinge A . These forces are in equilibrium; therefore, if moments be taken about any point, $\Sigma M = 0$.

Take moments about the point A :

$$\Sigma M = (\text{reaction at } A \times \text{zero}) + 6 \times 2 + P \times 12 = 0 \quad (1)$$

Since we do not know whether P acts upward or downward, the constant of P is assigned positive.

$$\begin{aligned} P \times 12 &= -8 - 12 \\ P &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

This negative result shows that the moment of P about A is negative; i.e., P acts upward at B as indicated by the arrowhead, and is of magnitude one pound.

The rod BC exerts a force away from B . It must, therefore, exert an equal and opposite force Q at its other extremity C ; i.e., at C there is a vertical force of one pound acting downward as indicated by the arrowhead.

Consider the lever EC . It is acted upon by three forces in equilibrium, viz., the force W acting at E , the reaction of the knife edge at D , and the known vertical force acting at C . For this set of forces, ΣM about any point equals zero.

Take moments about D :

$$\Sigma M = Q \times 2 + (\text{reaction at } D \times \text{zero}) - W \times 10 = 0 \quad (2)$$

Putting in the known value of $Q = 1$, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} W &= 10 \\ W &= 1.5 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, W is a weight of one pound, and it is in such a manner as to give a negative moment about D . W , therefore, acts downward.

The reader may question why the moments of P and W in equations (1) and (2) were taken positive when his experience would lead him to believe that both these quantities should be negative, since both P and W are counter to the convention of positive and negative moments. It must be kept in mind, however, that the two extremities of the lever EC are E and C , and W acts downward, thereby giving W the same sense of displacement as that for which these moments were taken positive. It is generally safer to assume the direction of the reaction and then to determine the direction of the reaction, adding a minus sign if the moment of the reaction force is not

If a force P of 100 pounds be exerted at the joint of the upper arm as indicated, what force S must be exerted at the joint of the other arm in order to preserve equilibrium?

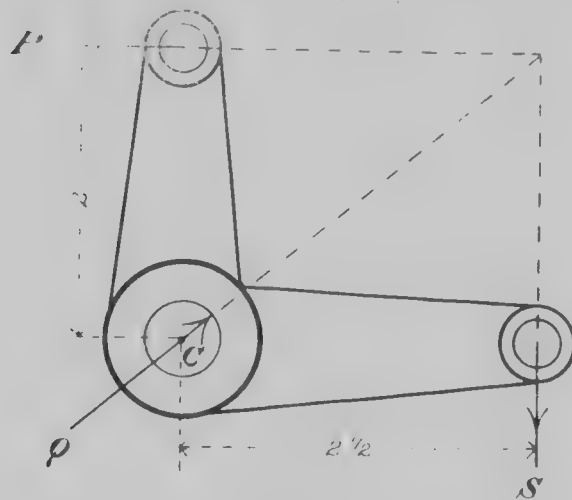


Fig. 81.

Let us assume that the forces P and S are applied at the joints of the arms, and let us assume that the force S is applied at the joint of the other arm in order to preserve equilibrium. The force P is applied at the joint of the upper arm, and the force S is applied at the joint of the other arm. The force P is applied at the joint of the upper arm, and the force S is applied at the joint of the other arm.

The force P is applied at the joint of the upper arm, and the force S is applied at the joint of the other arm. The force P is applied at the joint of the upper arm, and the force S is applied at the joint of the other arm.

$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

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$$P \cdot \sin \phi = S \cdot \sin \theta$$

Since the crank is in equilibrium, the sum of the moments about the crank pin must be zero. The moment due to the weight P is $P \times a$, and the moment due to the reaction S is $S \times b$. Since the crank is in equilibrium, the sum of the moments about the crank pin must be zero. Therefore, $P \times a = S \times b$, and $S = \frac{P \times a}{b}$.

To Find the Reaction Q :

Apply the principle of moments to the crank. The sum of the moments about the crank pin must be zero. The moment due to the weight P is $P \times a$, the moment due to the reaction S is $S \times b$, and the moment due to the reaction Q is $Q \times c$. Since the crank is in equilibrium, the sum of the moments about the crank pin must be zero. Therefore, $P \times a + S \times b = Q \times c$, and $Q = \frac{P \times a + S \times b}{c}$. Since $S = \frac{P \times a}{b}$, we can substitute this value for S in the equation for Q . Therefore, $Q = \frac{P \times a + \frac{P \times a}{b} \times b}{c} = \frac{P \times a + P \times a}{c} = \frac{2P \times a}{c}$.

CHAPTER XV

SIMULTANEOUS USE OF EQUATIONS.

$\sum X = 0$ and $\sum Y = 0$.

In the work previous to this, it has always been possible to determine the unknown forces of a set, one at a time, by the independent use of either the equations $\sum X = 0$ or $\sum Y = 0$. In the case that will be taken up next, and in many other cases, it is only possible to arrive at results by the simultaneous use of the two equations $\sum X = 0$ and $\sum Y = 0$, and in such cases certain precautions must be observed.

The roof truss (Fig. 93) is known as a German Truss. This form of structure is obsolete as far as prac-

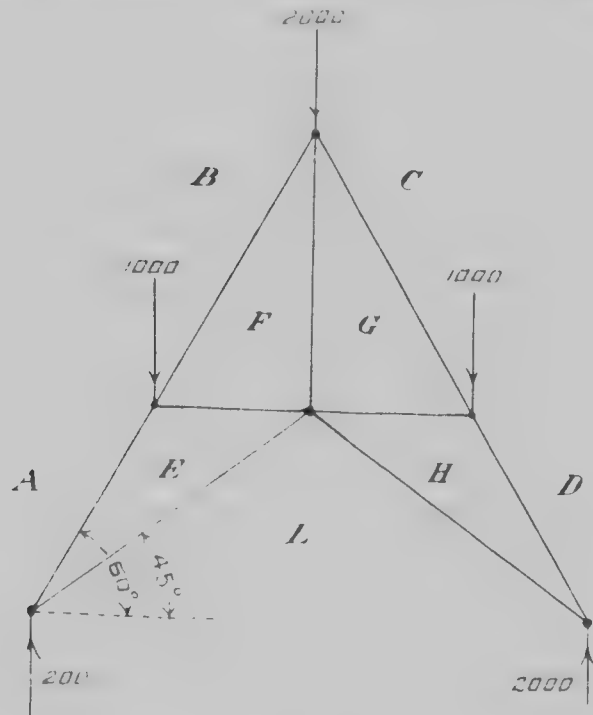


Fig. 93.

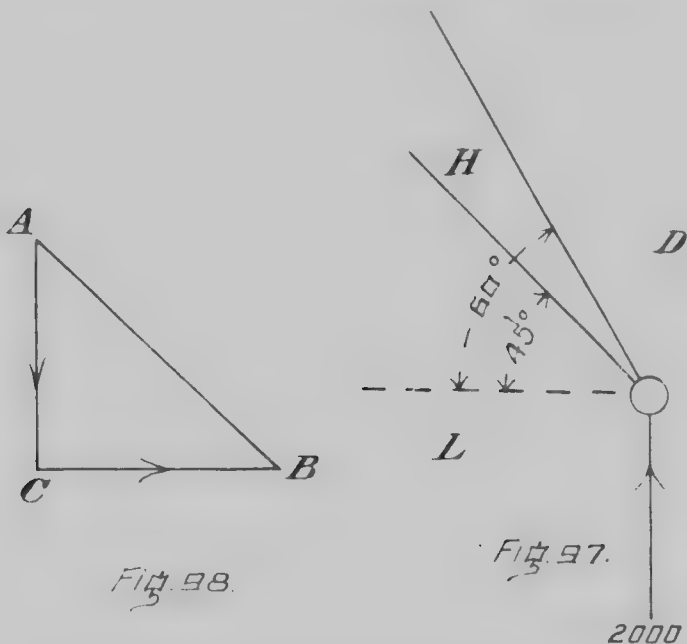
tical, and is illustrated here for the purpose of illustrating the point under discussion.

Considering the forces acting on the truss and applying the equation $\sum M = 0$, taking moments about a point in the line of action of either abutment reaction, it is seen that the abutment reactions are both equal to 2000 pounds.

Consider the forces acting at the point LHD (State of Diagram, Fig. 97). Since these forces are in equilibrium, $\sum X = 0$, $\sum Y = 0$, $\sum M = 0$.

$$\sum X = X_{LH} - X_{HD} + X_{DL} = 0.$$

LH and HD being both unknown, as are the X 's positive.



$$LH \cos 45 - HD \cos 45 = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$LH \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - HD \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = 0$$

$$\sqrt{2} HD$$

$$LH$$

$$1 = 2$$

$$HD$$

$$\sqrt{2}$$

the point LEA is shown in Fig. 1.10. The forces acting on the point LEA are FE and FA . If the member EF is in tension, the force FE is directed towards the point LEA, and the force FA is directed away from the point LEA. If the member EF is in compression, the force FE is directed away from the point LEA, and the force FA is directed towards the point LEA.

Consider the forces acting at the point LEA.

$$\sum X = X_{FE} + X_{FA} + X_{LE} = 0$$

$$FE \cos 30^\circ + FA \cos 60^\circ + 1000 = 0$$

$$FE$$

$$FE = -1000 \text{ pounds}$$

$$N$$

$$2Y = Y_{FE} + Y_{FA} + Y_{LE} = 0$$

For equilibrium with the point LEA, the sum of the X and Y components of the forces acting on the point LEA must be zero.

$2Y = FE \sin 30^\circ + FA \sin 60^\circ + 1000 = 0$ (Since FE is in compression, FE is negative.)

$$FA \sin 60^\circ = -1000$$

$$FA = -1000 / \sin 60^\circ$$

$$FA = -1155 \text{ pounds}$$

$$N$$

$$FA$$

$$1155$$

$$1000$$

$$FA$$

$$N = 1155$$

From the negative results, the assumptions as to N and Y are seen to be wrong. N and Y are, therefore, both negative, i.e., FA acts away from the point LEA.

$$1000$$

∴ the FA is in compression. 1000 pounds

$$N = 1155$$

$$\sum M = 0 \quad FE \sin 30^\circ + FA \sin 60^\circ + 1000 = 0$$

$$FE \sin 30^\circ + FA \sin 60^\circ + 1000 = 0$$

$$FE$$

$$FE$$

$$1000 = 1155$$

$$N = 1155$$

$$N = 1155 \text{ pounds}$$

$$N$$

$$N$$

$$N$$

$$FE$$

$$N$$

$$N$$

$$FE$$

$$N$$

$$N$$

$$N = 1155$$

[illegible]

1. The first two conditions are satisfied by the AP and PB models. The third condition is satisfied by the PB model, but not by the AP model. The PB model is thus more consistent with the data than the AP model.

of AP and PB in Fig. 76, it is seen that AP acts away from the joint and PB acts into it.

For the case AP is, therefore, in tension, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds, and the member PB in compression, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds.

Consider the point PADE. Acting at this point are three known forces, the load and two forces exerted by the tension members PA and AC, and two unknown forces, as indicated in the Statics Diagram, (Fig. 72).

PA, AC, and CD (Fig. 73) represent the known force PA, AC, and CD. From D and P, respectively, draw lines parallel to the directions of DE and EP (Fig. 72) intersecting at E. DE and EP (Fig. 73) represent, respectively, the unknown force DE and EP, acting as indicated by the continuously pointed sense marks. In order to avoid confusion, in the diagram (Fig. 73) a broken line is used, showing how to indicate that the force DE and EP are of 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds each.

The force DE evidently acts away from the point and EP acts into the point. Therefore, DE is, in fact, in tension, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds, and the force EP in compression, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds.

Find the stress in the remaining members LG, GB, EF, and FG.

Consider the joint G. The forces acting at this joint are BG, GF, and GE (Fig. 74).

The force BG acts away from the point BPG, the force GF acts into the point BPG, and the force GE acts into the point BPG.

For the case GF is, therefore, in tension, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds, and the force BG in compression, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds.

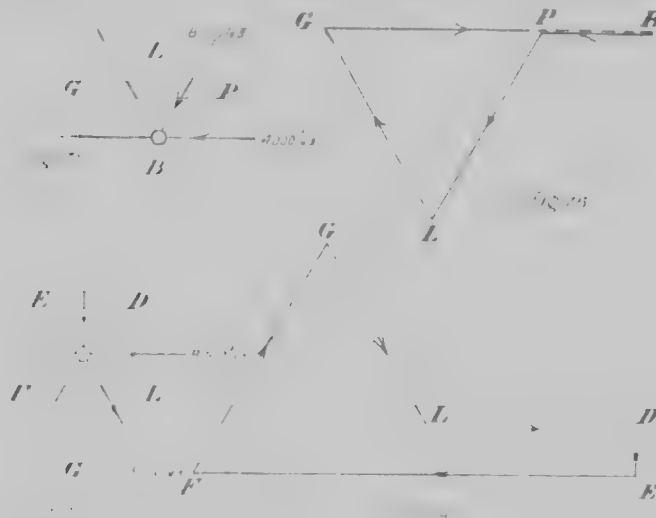
Consider the joint E. The forces acting at this joint are DE, EF, and EG (Fig. 75). The force DE acts away from the point and EF acts into the point. Therefore, DE is, in fact, in tension, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds, and the force EF in compression, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds.

Consider the joint F. The forces acting at this joint are GF, EF, and FG (Fig. 76). The force GF acts into the point and EF acts away from the point. Therefore, GF is, in fact, in compression, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds, and the force FG in tension, 2500 $\times$ 3 pounds.

To Construct a Stress Diagram.

In the last problem a new Vector Polygon was constructed for each set of forces being considered. If these diagrams are drawn to a suitable working scale, they spread over a considerable area, and also, in transferring magnitudes to a new line, there is the liability of an error which may or may not be cumulative in its effect throughout the problem. It is possible, however, to condense these diagrams and at the same time restrict the liability to error in magnitudes by drawing what the writer chooses to call a **Continuous Vector Diagram**, or, as it is often referred to, a **Stress Diagram**.

It may be pointed out that it will help to simplify the problem if the reader will construct, on a loose sheet of paper, the Vector Polygons (Figs. 69, 71, 73, 76, and



80), to the same scale of forces in each case. The same scale of forces will be used throughout the following problem:

1. The truss shown in Fig. 77 is subjected to the following loads:
 - (a) A horizontal force of 4000 lbs. acting to the right at joint A.
 - (b) A vertical force of 4000 lbs. acting downwards at joint B.
 - (c) A horizontal force of 4000 lbs. acting to the left at joint C.
 - (d) A vertical force of 4000 lbs. acting upwards at joint D.
 - (e) A horizontal force of 4000 lbs. acting to the right at joint E.
 - (f) A vertical force of 4000 lbs. acting downwards at joint F.

For the next step, we prove BAP. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the vector $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$. Since $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}^T$, $\mathbf{D} \alpha = \mathbf{D}^T \alpha$ and hence BAP is equivalent to the following. Recall that $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}^T$ and $\mathbf{D} \alpha = \mathbf{D}^T \alpha$ if and only if

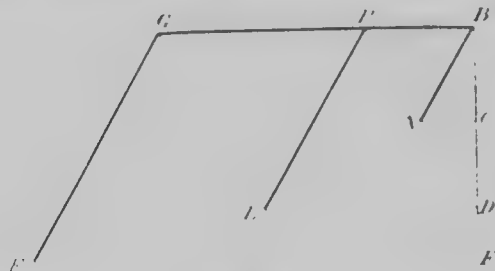


Fig. 7).

[illegible]

The reader is likely to be confused by the ordering of the points GL, DE, EL, and EG in the diagram when drawn should read, GL, LD, DE, EL, and EG.

Doubtless, the reader will see that the construction of this Stress Diagram is merely a process of piecing together the Vector Polygons for the various points of the truss.

It should be noticed that the lines of the Stress Diagram, since they have no sense marks placed on them, really represent the magnitude of the stress in the various members; e.g., the line LG represents the stress in the member LG.

In the two preceding problems the determination of the stress in the various members of the cantilever truss (Fig. 67) was arrived at by graphical means, although a little trigonometry was occasionally made use of. It is possible, however, to arrive at these quantities analytically as indicated in the following discussion. In order to simplify matters, the reader is advised to draw the Statical Diagrams (Figs. 68, 70, 72, 75, and 77) on a loose sheet of paper so that they may be readily referred to.

The following facts must be kept in mind throughout the problem :

The **magnitude** of the X of any force = (magnitude of force) $\times$ cosine of angle of inclination of force to the horizontal.

The **magnitude** of the Y of any force = (magnitude of force) $\times$ (sine of angle of inclination of force to the horizontal).

Also, $\|u\|_{\infty} = \sup_{t \in [0, \infty)} \|u(t, \cdot)\|_{\infty}$ denotes the norm in $L^{\infty}([0, \infty); \mathbb{R}^n)$, $\|u\|_{\infty} = 0$, and $\|v\|_{\infty} = 0$.

Analytical Determination of the Stress in the Members of the Cantilever (Fig. 67).

[illegible]

[illegible]

$$N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\rho_{\text{eff}}}{\rho_{\text{crit}}} = \frac{8\pi G}{3H^2} \left(\sum_i \rho_i + \frac{B^2}{2} \right) \quad (A.1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} YB &= BC \sin \alpha = BC \sin 60^\circ = 1000 \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ YC &= CA \sin \alpha = CA \sin 60^\circ \end{aligned}$$

$$YB = AB \sin \alpha = AB \sin 60^\circ = AB \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Substituting these values in equation (1)

$$\begin{aligned} 2X &= 1000 \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - AB \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ AB &= \frac{2000 - 2X}{\sqrt{3}} \end{aligned}$$

If, say, this value of AB , which is a positive quantity, be substituted for AB in equation (2), it is seen that the assumed positive sign of the Y of AB remains unchanged. The assumed sign of the Y of AB is, therefore, correct, i.e., the Y of AB is positive.

If YB is positive, i.e., B is upward, AB is said to be in tension against the pin. The reaction AB is,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{therefore, a compression,} &= \frac{4000}{\sqrt{3}} \text{ pounds.} \end{aligned}$$

For the same point,

$$2X = X_B + X_C + X_{AB} = 0 + 0 + 0 = 0$$

$$X_B = BC \cos \alpha = 0$$

$$X_C = CA \cos \alpha = CA \cos 60^\circ = CA \times \frac{1}{2}$$

Since CA is unknown, $X_C = \frac{CA}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} X_{AB} &= AB \cos \alpha = AB \cos 60^\circ = AB \times \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{2000 - 2X}{\sqrt{3}} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1000 - X}{\sqrt{3}} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting these values in (3)

$$\begin{aligned} 2X &= 0 + CA + \frac{1000 - X}{\sqrt{3}} \\ CA &= \frac{2000}{\sqrt{3}} \\ &= \frac{2000 \times \sqrt{3}}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this value of CA in equation (2), it is seen that the assumed sign of the X of CA is correct, i.e., the X of CA is positive. Thus, the reaction CA is said to be in tension against the pin. The reaction CA is, therefore, a tension of $\frac{2000 \times \sqrt{3}}{3}$ pounds.

The forces acting at the point BAP, as shown in the Statical Diagram (Fig. 70), are in equilibrium

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= Y_{BA} - Y_{AP} - Y_{PB} = 0 \\ BA \sin 60^\circ &= AP \sin 60^\circ + PB \sin 60^\circ \\ \frac{4,000 \times 8.3}{8.3 \times 2} &= \frac{AP \times 8.3}{8.3 \times 2} + \frac{PB \times 8.3}{8.3 \times 2} \\ &= \frac{AP}{2} + \frac{PB}{2}\end{aligned}$$

From the positive sign of this result the Y_{AP} is seen to be positive; i.e., the force AP acts away from the pin. The member AP is, therefore, in tension 4,000 pounds.

For the same point,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum X &= X_{BA} + X_{AP} + X_{PB} = 0 \\ BA \cos 60^\circ + PB \cos 60^\circ + PB \cos 60^\circ &= 0 \\ \frac{4,000 \times 4}{8.3 \times 2} + \frac{4,000 \times 4}{8.3 \times 2} + \frac{PB \times 4}{8.3 \times 2} &= 0 \\ &= \frac{4,000}{8.3} + \frac{4,000}{8.3} + \frac{PB}{8.3} = 0 \\ &= \frac{8,000 + PB}{8.3} = 0\end{aligned}$$

The positive sign of the result shows that the X_{PB} is positive. PB must, therefore, act against the pin, placing the member PB in compression 4,000 pounds.

The forces acting at the point PACDL are in equilibrium, and act as represented in the Statical Diagram (Fig. 72).

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= Y_{PA} - Y_{AC} - Y_{CD} - Y_{DL} - Y_{LP} = 0 \\ PA \sin 60^\circ - AC \sin 60^\circ - CD \sin 60^\circ - DL \sin 60^\circ - LP \sin 60^\circ &= 0 \\ \frac{4,000 \times 8.3}{8.3 \times 2} - 0 - 2,000 - \frac{LP \times 8.3}{8.3 \times 2} &= 0 \\ \frac{4,000}{2} - 2,000 - \frac{LP}{2} &= 0 \\ &= 2,000 - \frac{LP}{2} = 0 \\ &= \frac{4,000 - LP}{2} = 0 \\ &= 4,000 - LP = 0 \\ &= LP = 4,000\end{aligned}$$

the reaction forces at the reaction points, the Y_H is assumed to act upwards. In accordance with this, $IP = 0$ acts downwards, placing the reaction IP in a tension of $8,000 \times 3$ pounds.

The reaction is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \sum X = \sum H = \sum C = \sum D = \sum E = \sum F = 0 \\ PV = 0 = AC = 0 = CD = 0 = 0 \\ DL = 0 = 0 = LP = 0 = 0 \\ 8,000 \times 1 = 8,000 = 8,000 \times 1 \\ 8,000 \times 2 = 8,000 \times 2 \\ 8,000 \times 3 = 8,000 \times 3 \\ DL = 8,000 \times 3 \end{aligned}$$

The negative sign of the result shows that the Not where the X reaction is being used is negative. DL , therefore, acts away from the pin, i.e., the member DL is in tension $8,000 \times 3$ pounds.

The reader is advised to try and determine the forces in the remaining members before referring to the solution as herein given.

For the forces acting at the point BPLG (Statical Diagram, Fig. 753):

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y = \sum H = \sum V = \sum G = \sum B = 0 \\ 8,000 \times 3 = 8,000 \times 3 \\ LG = 0 = 0 \\ 8,000 \times 2 = 8,000 \times 2 \\ LG = 8,000 \times 2 \end{aligned}$$

From this positive result it is seen that YLG is positive. LG , therefore, acts away from the point; i.e., the member LG is in tension $8,000 \times 2$ pounds.

The reaction is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \sum X = \sum H = \sum C = \sum D = \sum E = 0 \\ 0 = 8,000 \times 1 = 8,000 \times 1 \\ GB = 8,000 \times 1 \\ 8,000 \times 3 = 8,000 \times 3 \\ GB = 8,000 \times 3 \end{aligned}$$

The X_{GB} is evidently positive. GB , therefore, acts against the pin. The member GB is, therefore, in

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{compression} = \frac{12,000}{\sqrt{3}} \text{ pounds.} \end{array}$$

Considering the point $GLDEF$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 77)

$$\begin{array}{l} \Sigma Y = Y_{GL} + Y_{LD} + Y_{DE} + Y_{EF} + Y_{FG} = 0 \\ \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 0 + 0 + 4,000 + 0 + FG = 0 \\ \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 2 = \frac{10,000}{\sqrt{3}} \\ FG = \frac{10,000}{\sqrt{3}} \end{array}$$

The Y_{FG} being positive (from the positive result), FG must act against the pin; i.e., the member FG

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{is in compression} = \frac{10,000}{\sqrt{3}} \text{ pounds.} \end{array}$$

For the same point:

$$\begin{array}{l} \Sigma X = X_{GL} + X_{LD} + X_{DE} + X_{EF} + X_{FG} = 0 \\ \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 1 + \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 0 + EF + \frac{10,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 1 = 0 \\ \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + 2 + \frac{8,000}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{10,000}{\sqrt{3}} + EF = 0 \\ EF = -\frac{17,000}{\sqrt{3}} \end{array}$$

The negative result shows that X_{EF} is negative. In accordance with this, EF acts away from the point. The

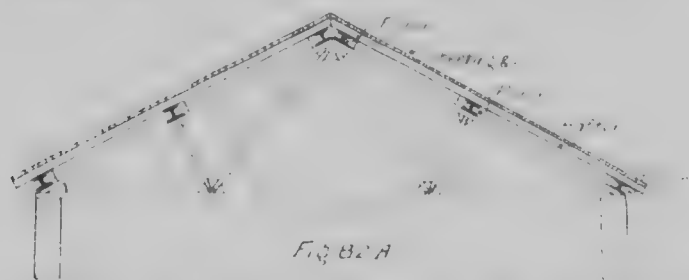
$$\begin{array}{l} \text{member } EF \text{ is, therefore, in tension} = \frac{17,000}{\sqrt{3}} \text{ pounds.} \end{array}$$

It is seen that these results check those found by graphical means. It must be recognized, however, that the so-called graphical solutions taken up so far in these pages have not been entirely graphical. In each case, in sketching the diagrams and finding the magnitude of the forces by scaling the lengths of the lines composing the Vector Polygon, trigonometrical means have been used to get at these quantities. The solutions have, therefore, been partly analytical. The point of the comparison of the analytical and graphical solutions employed there would have been found an error in the magnitudes of the forces as compared to the analytical values.

practically, but the amount is so small that in practice it does not amount to anything. Analytical results, of course, not entirely accurate.

King Post Truss.

Fig. 8, represents a simple form of roof or bridge truss, known as a King Post Truss. It must be clearly understood, however, that the ordinary forms of roof framing, consisting of the rafters and scantling timbers, which resemble the above truss in outline, do not really present the same problems as will be here discussed. Usually, the rafters have the roof decking, shingles, etc., lying directly on them, and then a tie beam. In this case, the rafters are inclined beams supporting a distributed load, and the stress in them is not a simple compression, but a combination of both tension and compression due to bending. In, however, stringers or rails be laid from truss to truss on the roofing system, so as to lie at the joints of the trusses, or nearly so, and if the rafters and roofing be built on these stringers, the load will then be transferred to the truss members at the joints, and the case will then be worked out by the methods taken up so far. Fig. 82 A



exists, for, in the case of roof trusses, the method of loading does depend on building on them.

There is also a form of bridge truss, very commonly met with on concrete roads, which is sometimes called

King Post Truss. The structure referred to is a heavy timber beam laid between the abutments, and the trussing above merely serves to stiffen this beam. In this case, the beam, which seemingly corresponds to the horizontal member of the ordinary King Post Truss, is not in simple tension, but is under both tension and compression existing in it, and these stresses must be worked out by elementary methods.

Required to find the stress in the members of the truss (Fig. 82).

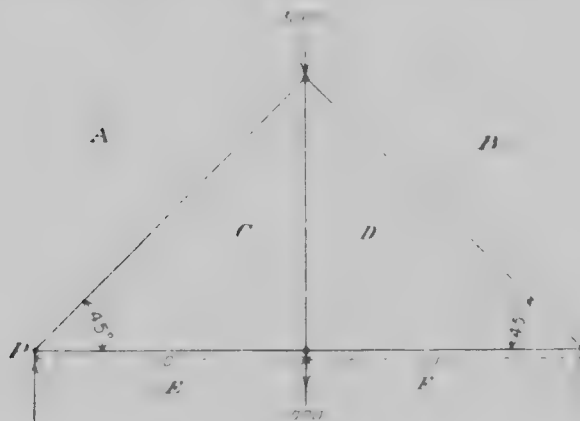


Fig. 82.

Analytical Solution: -

The whole truss is a body acted upon by a set of outside forces. These forces, the two loads AB and EF, and the two abutment reactions BF and EA, are in equilibrium; therefore, $\sum X = 0$; $\sum Y = 0$; $\sum M = 0$.

Take moments about a point in the line of action of one of the abutment reactions, say, the point P.

$$\sum M = M_{AB} + M_{EF} - M_{BF} - M_{EA} = 0.$$

Since BF is unknown, assume M_{BF} positive.

$$4,000 \times 10 - 2,000 \times 10 - BF \times 20 = 0$$

$$EA \times 0 = 0$$

$$BF = 2,000.$$

From the negative sign of the result, it is seen that M_{BF} about P is negative; i.e., BF acts upward.

$$\sum Y = Y_{AB} + Y_{EF} - Y_{BF} - Y_{EA} = 0.$$

$$4,000 - 2,000 - 2,000 - EA = 0.$$

$$EA = 2,000.$$

From the positive result we infer that Y_{EA} is positive; i.e., EA acts upward.

Consider the forces acting on the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the point EAC. The known and unknown forces are represented in the Static Diagram (Fig. 83).

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y &= Y_{AB} + Y_{AC} + Y_{AD} = 0 \\ \sum V &= AC = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \times 10,000 \\ &= 7,071 \text{ lb.} \\ &= AC = \text{compression} \\ &= AC = 7,071 \text{ lb.} \end{aligned}$$

From the negative result, the Y_{AB} is seen to be upward, i.e., AC then acts *against* the pin, i.e., the member AC is in tension 7,071 pounds.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum X &= X_B = X_C = X_D = 0 \\ 0 &= AC \cos 45^\circ - CF = 0 \\ 0 &= 7,071 \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - CF \\ &= CF = 5,000 \text{ lb.} \end{aligned}$$

The positive result shows that X_C is positive i.e., CF , the reaction acts *away* from the pin, i.e., the member CF is in tension 5,000 pounds.

Consider the point B (D). The forces acting on the pin are indicated in the Statics I Diagram (Fig. 84).

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y &= Y_{AB} + Y_{BD} + Y_{DB} = 0 \\ B \uparrow = 0 \quad DB \sin 45^\circ = 0 \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 7,071 = 0 \quad DB, \quad 0 \\ &= \sqrt{2} \\ DB &= 7,071 \times \sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

From the negative result, the Y_{BD} is seen to be upward, i.e., DB , then acts *against* the pin, i.e., the reaction DB is in compression 10,000 $\times \sqrt{2}$ pounds.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum X &= X_B = X_D = X_{DB} \\ 0 &= ED - DB \cos 45^\circ = 0 \\ 0 &= ED - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \times 10,000 \times \sqrt{2} \\ &= ED = 10,000 \text{ lb.} \end{aligned}$$

From $X_D = 0$, $X_{DB} = 10,000$ lb. ED , X_{DB} acts *away* from the pin, i.e., the member ED is in tension 10,000 pounds.

FIG. 86. The forces acting at the point EFDC. The Static Diagram (Fig. 86) is shown in the lower part of the figure.



$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma Y &= Y_{FE} + Y_{FD} + Y_{DC} + Y_{CE} \\ 0 &= 1,000 + 1,000 + DC + 0 \\ DC &= -1,000. \end{aligned}$$

From the positive result for the reaction Y_{DC} , therefore, we determine that the force in the DC member acts in compression.

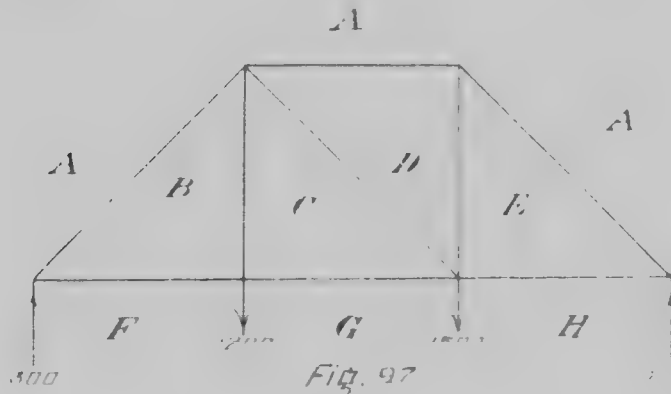
Graphical Solution.

Consider the forces acting at the point EFDC, represented in the Static Diagram (Fig. 86). Since there are three unknown forces in this case, it is not possible to construct the Vector Polygon for the set of forces. However, because FD and CE have the same lines of action, their resultant must act in that line. Replace FD and CE by their resultant as indicated in Fig. 87, Static Diagram (Fig. 87). How this resultant force is determined, however, as will be seen, this is of no importance.

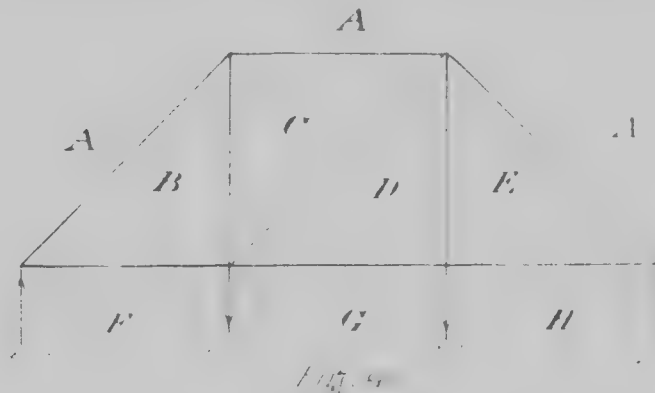
Construct the Vector Polygon for the forces shown in the Static Diagram (Fig. 87). Draw EF (Fig. 88) to represent the known force EF (Fig. 87). Then, draw

Stress Diagram.

Fig. 96 is the Stress Diagram for the truss, Fig. 1, and Fig. 97 is the same system of double forces, Fig. 1, taken from the preceding Stress Diagram.



The reader is advised to construct Fig. 97 on a sheet of paper, and, as the stress in each member is said, indicate it on this diagram. This will enable the reader to see clearly how the various Statical D



the reader is advised to construct Fig. 98 on a sheet of paper, and, as the stress in each member is said, indicate it on this diagram. This will enable the reader to see clearly how the various Statical D

If the following Vector P is drawn, the reader will see that the stress in each member is the same as in Fig. 97.

Consider the point $A|B$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 98).

$A|B = BA^{-1}$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 98).

$A|B = BA^{-1}$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 98).

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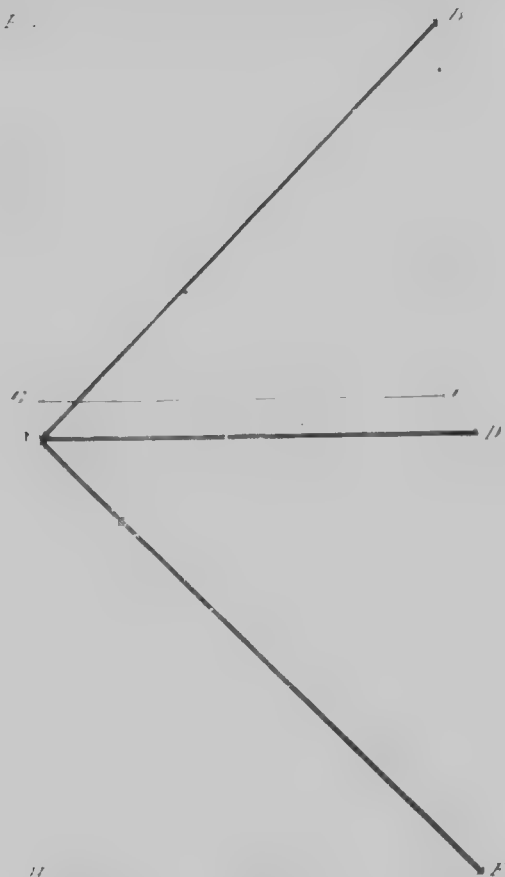


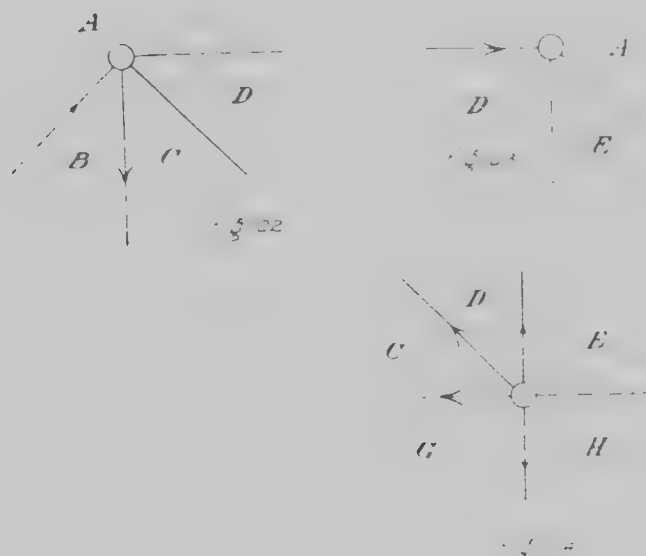
Fig. 99.

$BA = A^{-1}|B$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 99).
 $BA = A^{-1}|B$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 99).
 $BA = A^{-1}|B$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 99).
 $BA = A^{-1}|B$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 99).

Consider the point $B|G$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 99).

Fig. 68 represents a Truss, or rather a trussing, erected to support the truss, Fig. 67. The Stress Diagram for this truss is shown in Fig. 69, the construction of which may be seen by considering the stress points of the truss in the following order: A, B, A, B, C, C, B, G, D, A, C, D, E, E, D, G, H.

It is important to notice that the stress in the member CD, Fig. 67, is tension, whereas the member CD, Fig. 68, is in compression, but the magnitude of the stresses, in both cases, the same. That is, **provided the load be kept constant in magnitude and position**, the change in position of the member CD merely changes the nature of the stress, but not its magnitude.



From the preceding it follows that the stress in the truss, Fig. 67, is tension, the diagonal is in the end Q, and the truss, Fig. 68, is in compression, the diagonal is in the end P. But, Fig. 69, shows the stress in the truss, Fig. 68, is tension, the diagonal is in the end Q, and the truss, Fig. 67, is in compression, the diagonal is in the end P. This is sufficient to show that the stress in the truss, Fig. 67, is tension, the diagonal is in the end Q, and the truss, Fig. 68, is in compression, the diagonal is in the end P. Such a diagonal is called a "diagonal brace," the theory of which will be given in the next chapter of the Principles.

The French Root Truss.

The following represents the French root truss, as shown in the French Patent. Such a truss is frequently employed where the roof surface is steep and the interior space is desired for an open space. The following shows how the truss is constructed and the various parts labeled.

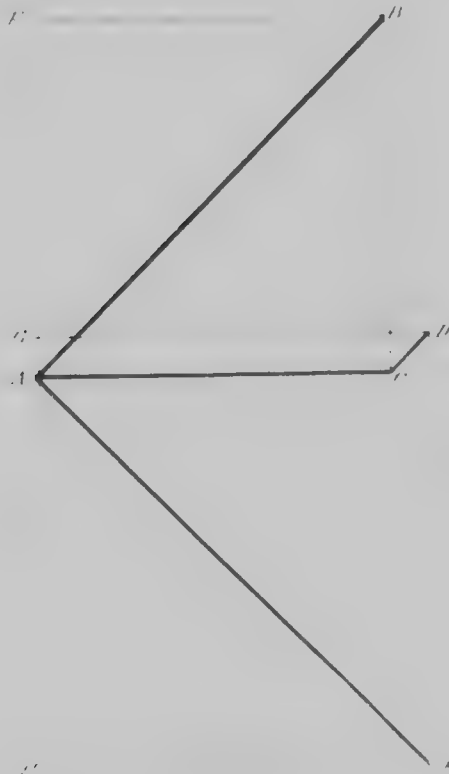


FIG. 105.

The Link Roof Truss.

The Link Roof Truss, as shown in the French Patent, is used where the truss is to be used in a building where the roof is steep and the interior space is desired for an open space. The following shows how the truss is constructed and the various parts labeled.

The method of constructing the truss is shown in the following diagram, which is the French Patent for the same.

it will only be necessary to determine the stresses in the left

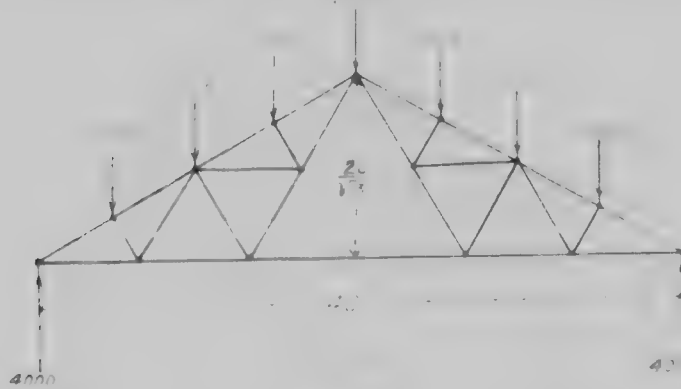


FIG. 109.

hand half of the truss, for, since the loading is symmetrical, the stresses in corresponding members of both halves of the truss must be the same.

If the algebraic section be carried on to the right-hand half of the truss, it will be found that the stress

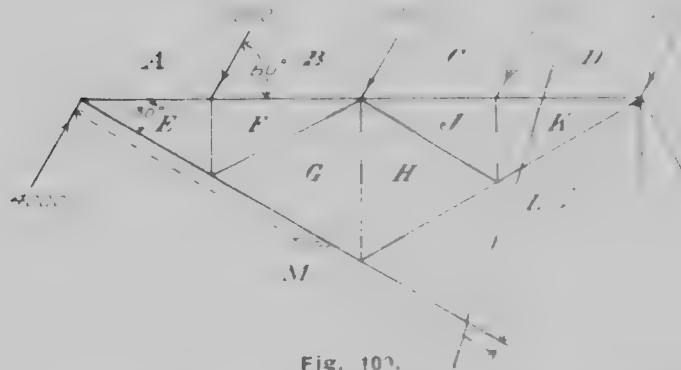


FIG. 109.

in the right-hand half of the truss is the same as in the left-hand half. This can be proved by the method of algebraic section, which is the same as the method of algebraic section applied to the left-hand half of the truss, as shown in Fig. 109. Also, the stress

the point AVE (Station D = 1000) is
 $Y = Y_{AM} - Y_{ME} = Y_{AM} - 0$
 $Y = 1000 - 0 = 1000$
 $X = 0$
 $ME = 0$

Consider the Point AVE (Station D = 1000)

$$Y = Y_{AM} - Y_{ME} = Y_{AM} - 0$$

$$Y = 1000 - 0 = 1000$$

$$X = 0$$

$$ME = 0$$

The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000.

$$X = X_{AM} - X_{ME} = X_{AM} - 0$$

$$X = 0 - 0 = 0$$

$$Y = Y_{AM} - Y_{ME} = Y_{AM} - 0$$

$$Y = 1000 - 0 = 1000$$

$$X = 0$$

$$Y = 1000$$

The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000. The stationing of the point AVE is 1000.

Consider the Point BAE (Station D = 1000)

$$Y = Y_{AM} - Y_{BE} = Y_{AM} - Y_{BE}$$

$$Y = 1000 - 0 = 1000$$

$$X = 0$$

$$BE = 0$$

The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000.

$$X = X_{AM} - X_{BE} = X_{AM} - X_{BE}$$

$$X = 0 - 0 = 0$$

$$Y = Y_{AM} - Y_{BE} = Y_{AM} - Y_{BE}$$

$$Y = 1000 - 0 = 1000$$

$$X = 0$$

$$Y = 1000$$

The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000. The stationing of the point BAE is 1000.

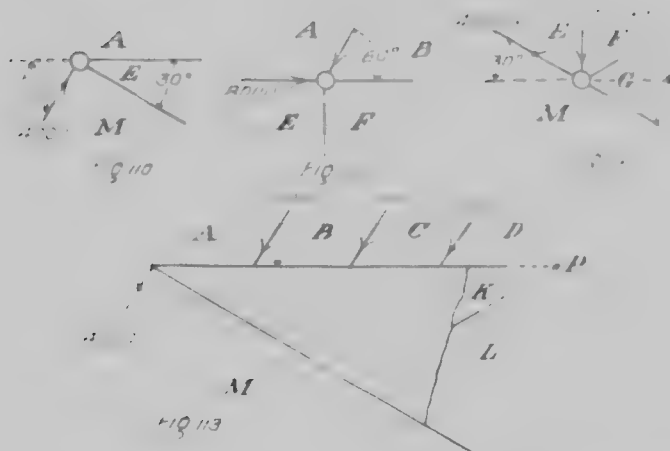
Consider the Point FEMG shown in Fig. 110.

For equilibrium, $\sum X = 0$ and $\sum Y = 0$ must be satisfied. Therefore,

$$-X + X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4 + X_5 = 0$$

$$-Y + Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4 + Y_5 = 0$$

$$M_G = 4,000 \times 2 = 8,000$$



In accordance with the X_{MG} having been assumed positive, the Y_{MG} must be assumed negative if the X_{MG} is to be used simultaneously. In the same manner, in consideration of the line of action of GF , the Y_{MG} must be assumed positive if the X_{MG} has been assumed positive.

$$-Y = Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4 + Y_5 = 0$$

$$-Y \times 3 = 4,000 \times 2 \sin 30^\circ + M_G \times 3$$

$$Y = 8,000$$

$$4,000 \times 2 = 4,000 \times 2 + \dots + M_G = \dots + GF \times 2 \dots$$

Substitute value of M_G from (1) into (2).

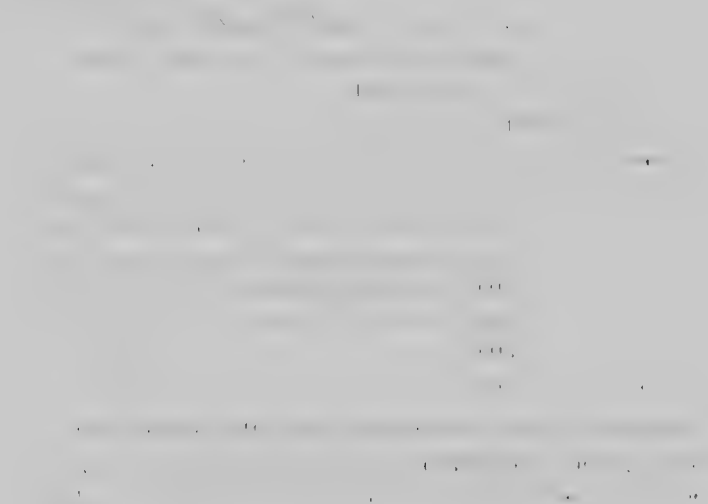
$$4,000 \times 2 = 2,000 \times 2 + (4,000 \times 2) + GF \times 2 - GF$$

$$2,000 \times 2 = 2,000 \times 2 + 2,000 \times 2 + GF \times 2 - GF$$

$$GF = 2,000 \times 2 \dots$$

The positive value for GF indicates that the direction is the same as to the X and Y of GF as shown in Fig. 110. Since X and

Consider the Point GMED



Graphical Solution



the point MAE, 1



Point GMED	0.0	0.5	1.0
MAE	0.0	0.5	1.0
MAE - GMED	0.0	0.0	0.0

therefore, in Compression, and the member EAM in Tension.

It is a saving device, such it will be merely necessary to draw in the members, and the members in tension or compression, and finding the magnitudes of these forces from the figures can only be done by either measuring the lengths of the lines; which is impracticable, or by the great polygons, are not of a size suitable to any but the most accurate, or by applying geometrical construction to the figures, which may easily be done by the reader.

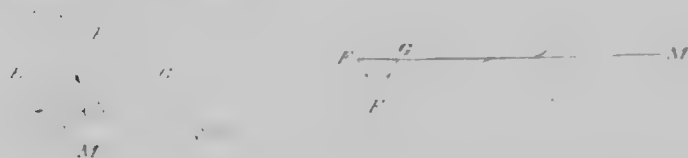
It is, of course, always best for the reader to construct the polygons or figures for himself, using some geometrical scale.

Consider the point EABF. Fig. 116 is the Statical Diagram for the forces acting at this point. From the Vector Polygon (Fig. 117) it is seen that the forces BE



and EF both act against the point. The members BE and EF are, therefore, in Compression.

Considering the forces acting at the point MCFG Statical Diagrams, Fig. 118). From the Vector Polygon (Fig. 119), it is seen that both the forces FG and GM act away from the point, the members FG and GM being, in consequence, in Tension. (The reader will

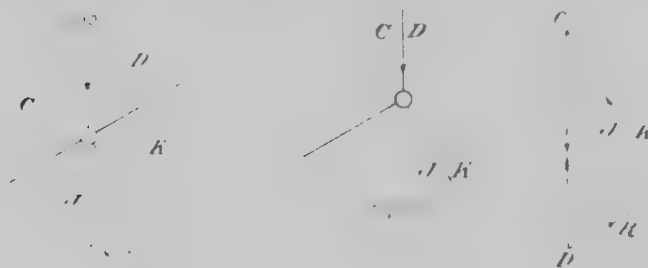


note that the Vector Polygon for the members ME, EF, FG, and GM, is a closed polygon, and that the force acting on ME is the same as the force acting on GM, and that the force acting on ME is the same as the force acting on FG.

Consider, next, the point CDKJ (Statical Diagram, Fig. 120). From the Vector Polygon, it is seen that the forces CD

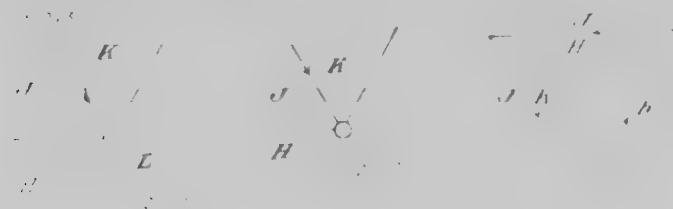
in BC , and DK , KL , and IC , are unknown. Since there are three unknowns at this point, it is impossible to construct a Vector Polygon as the problem has not started. IC and DK , however, have the same line of action. If it is assumed that IC is in tension, then DK is in compression.

Replace IC and DK by their resultant R , as indicated in Static Diagram, Fig. 121. Continuing the Vector Polygon for the new set of forces, which now contains two unknowns, it is seen from Fig. 122 that the force KL acts against the point. The member KL



is, therefore, in Compression. The magnitude of the resultant R gives no information of value.

Consider the point $JKLH$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 123). Since KL and LH also have the same line of action, their resultant will act on that line. Replacing KL and LH by their resultant R , as indicated in Fig. 124, shown in Static Diagram, Fig. 124, is indicated. Con-



tinuing the Vector Polygon for the new set of forces, it is seen from Fig. 125 that the force HL acts against the point. The member HL is, therefore, in Compression.

Coming back to the point $GFBCJH$ (Static Diagram, Fig. 126), it is seen that there are three unknowns

to reconstruct the polygon, using Bow's Notation if the Stress Diagram is to be drawn.

Stress Diagram.

Fig. 128 is the complete Stress Diagram for the left-hand half of the Fink Truss as shown in Fig. 128A. It will merely be necessary to point out the various Vector Polygons in this diagram since the construction of these polygons has been already gone through.

MA, AE, and EM (Fig. 128) evidently form a Vector Polygon for the forces acting at the point MAE. (See Figs. 114 and 115.)

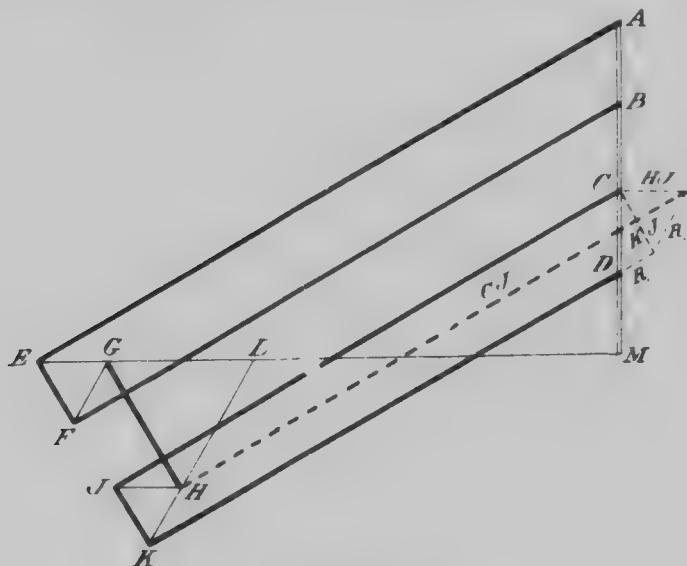


Fig. 128.

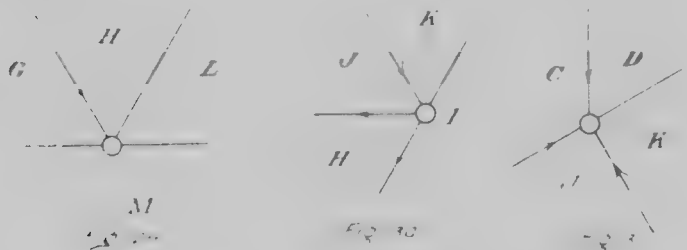
Considering the point EABF, the Vector Polygon reads on Fig. 128: EA, AB, BF, and FE. (Compare with Fig. 117.)

Coming next to the point MEFG (see Figs. 118 and 119), ME, EF, FG, and GM (Fig. 128) form a Vector Polygon for the forces acting at this point.

From B, on the line MA, lay off BC to represent the load BC. Then from C, on the same line, lay off CD to represent the load CD.

Consider the point KJCD. Replacing DK and JC by their resultant R, it is seen that CD, R (dotted), and KJ (dotted) form the Vector Polygon for the forces indicated in Statical Diagram, Fig. 121.

Referring to Statical Diagram (Fig. 129) for the point **MGHL**, it is seen that **MG**, **GH**, **HL**, and **LM** (Fig. 128) constitute a Vector Polygon for the forces acting at this point. It is evident from this polygon that both the forces **HL** and **LM** act away from the point. The members **HL** and **LM** are, therefore, both in Tension.



Consider the point **IHKJ** (Statical Diagram, Fig. 130). **IH**, **HI**, **JK**, and **KI** (Fig. 128) is the Vector Polygon for the forces acting at this point, from which it is seen that the member **KI** is in Tension.

Coming back, finally, to the point **KJCD** (Statical Diagram, Fig. 131), evidently **KJ**, **JC**, **CD**, and **DK** (Fig. 128) form a Vector Polygon for the forces being considered. The force **DK** is seen to act against the point. The member **DK** must, in consequence, be in Compression.

The Pratt Truss.

Fig. 133 represents a form of bridge truss known as a Pratt Truss. The Effective Dead Load shown in the diagram has been chosen purely arbitrarily without regard to the practical rules which govern the first assumptions as to dead loads on bridges, convenient quantities having been chosen which will serve to illustrate the method of procedure.

Since the truss (Fig. 133) is symmetrically constructed and loaded, it will merely be necessary to consider one half of the structure, for corresponding members in both halves will have the same stresses.

The required stresses may be determined by either considering the forces acting on the pin at each joint of the truss, or the Method of Sections may be applied. The section through **cd** is chosen for the purpose of illustrating the method of procedure.

way as to give not more than three unknowns to each problem. The former course will be pursued in this case.

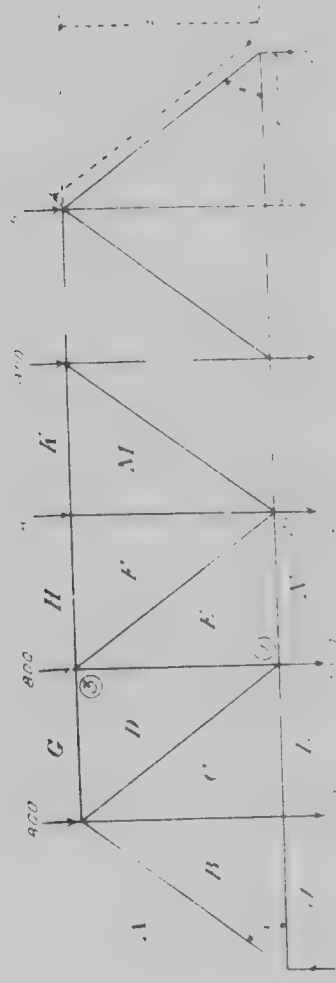


Fig. 133

Consider the forces acting on the pin at the joint BAJ (Statical Diagram, Fig. 134).

ΣV	ΣM	ΣH	ΣR	Σ
7,000	0	BA, 4.5	0	
BA		5 + 7,000	8,750	

of forces acting at the various joints of the truss be considered in the same order as taken up in the preceding analytical solution (see Statical Diagrams, Figs. 134 . . . 138), the Vector Polygons for the respective cases may easily be followed out on the diagram.

Live Load Stresses.

A few structural details will have to be pointed out in order that the reader may clearly understand the following discussion of Live Load stresses:

Fig. 133 represents the truss on one side of a bridge. On the other side is a truss of the same construction. Connecting these trusses at the top is a system of bracing, and at the lower joints provision is made to

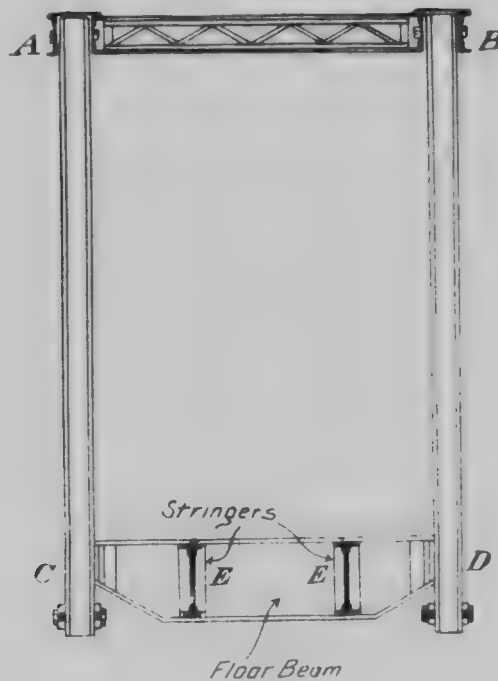


FIG. 133

support the floor system. Fig. 140 represents diagrammatically by an end elevation, the method of supporting the flooring, etc. This figure represents an end elevation of the joints (1.) and (3.) (Fig. 133) and the corresponding joints on the opposite truss of the bridge.

AC and BD represent the vertical members between the top joints A and B. Riveted to the lower extremities of these vertical members is a beam, fastened to which are as many other longitudinal stringers EF.

It may be thought desirable to support the floor upon which the Live Load will pass. In this manner, the Live Load is transferred by the stringers EF to the floor beams joined between verticals at C and D, and thence to the joints of the truss.

If now, a Live Load be in some position between the lower joints (1) and (2) (Fig. 143), it is seen from the preceding discussion that part of the load will be transferred to the joint (1) and part to the joint (2); the portion of the load transferred to either joint depending upon the distance of the load from (1) or (2).

It is seen from the preceding discussion on the construction of the floor beams and stringers that the live load is transferred by these beams, etc., to the joints of the truss. If a Live Load occupies a position between two joints, part of the load goes to one joint and part to the other joint, so that if the stress in any particular member is desired, **the truss must be considered as acted upon by the portions of the load transferred to the respective joints between which the load lies.** For instance, if the load were to lie half way between the joints (2) and (3) (Fig. 141), half of the load goes to (2) and half to (3). The truss should then be considered as acted upon by two forces, one at (2) and the other at (3), and, in this case, both equal to half the load.

It is merely necessary, for the time being, to consider the Live Load as it comes directly over each joint, in which case the total load is taken as acting on the particular joint at which it lies.



Fig. 141.

In Fig. 141 the dotted line represents the level along which the Live Load of 5,000 pounds passes.

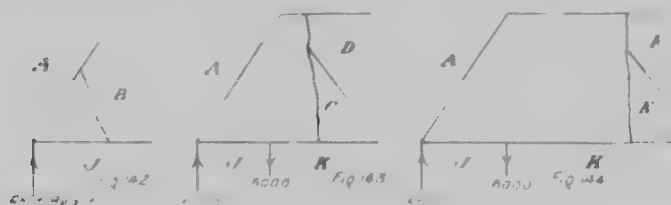
Consider the load at joint (2). The left-hand abutment reaction when the load is in this position will be $\frac{2}{3} \times 6,000 = 4,000$ pounds, since the load is $\frac{2}{3}$ of the way from the left abutment.

Take a section through the members AB and BE. Consider the forces acting on the portion of the truss to the left of this section. This portion to the left may be considered as a solid body. The forces acting on this body are in equilibrium, and act as represented in Fig. 142.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= Y_A + Y_{BE} - Y_{AB} = 0 \\ 4,000 &+ 4.5 AB - 0 = 0 \\ AB &= -1,250\end{aligned}$$

AB is evidently in Compression 1,250 pounds.

Consider the forces acting on the portion of the truss to the left of a section through the members AD, DC, and CK. In this case, and all of the following cases, the area underneath the lower chords to the left of the load will be lettered L, and the area to the right of the load lettered K. It is seen that these areas will change whenever the load takes up a new position. (See Fig. 143.)



$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y &= Y_A + Y_{DC} - Y_{AD} - Y_{CK} - Y_{KL} = 0 \\ 4,000 &- 0 + DC - 4.5 - 0 = 0,000 \\ DC &= 5.4 \times 1,000 = 1,250\end{aligned}$$

The member DC is in Compression 1,250 pounds.

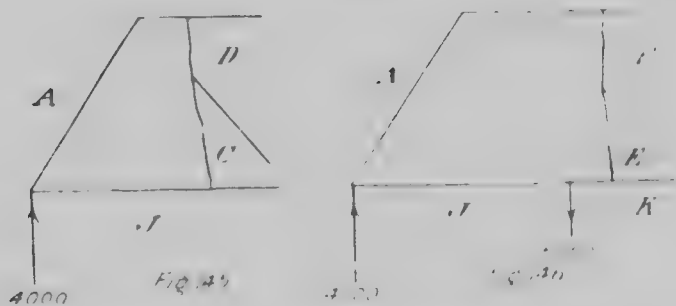
By taking a section through the members AF, FE, and EK and considering the forces acting on the truss to the left of this section (see Fig. 144), the member FE may also be shown to be in Compression 1,250 pounds.

Consider the load at joint (3). The left-hand abutment reaction in this case is $\frac{1}{3} \times 6,000 = 4,000$ pounds

Consider the forces acting on the section cut through the bottom chord AB, as shown in Fig. 45. The forces acting on the section cut are the reaction at A, the weight of the truss, and the internal forces at the cut.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y = 0 & \quad Y_A - Y_{AB} - Y_{CD} - Y_{EF} = 0 \\ 4000 - AB - 1500 - 1500 & = 0 \\ AB & = \frac{4000 - 3000}{1} = 1000 \end{aligned}$$

AB is the force in the bottom chord AB. It is in tension.



Consider the forces acting on the section cut through the diagonal member AC, as shown in Fig. 46. The forces acting on the section cut are the reaction at A, the weight of the truss, and the internal forces at the cut.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y = 0 & \quad Y_A - Y_{AC} - Y_{BC} - Y_{DE} - Y_{FG} = 0 \\ 4000 - AC - 1500 - 1500 - 1500 & = 0 \\ AC & = \frac{4000 - 4500}{1} = -500 \end{aligned}$$

The force in AC is in tension 500 pounds.

Figure 47 shows the forces acting on the section cut through the horizontal member EF, as shown in Fig. 47. The forces acting on the section cut are the reaction at A, the weight of the truss, and the internal forces at the cut.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum Y = 0 & \quad Y_A - Y_{EF} - Y_{BC} - Y_{DE} - Y_{FG} = 0 \\ 4000 - EF - 1500 - 1500 - 1500 & = 0 \\ EF & = \frac{4000 - 4500}{1} = -500 \end{aligned}$$

The force in EF is in compression 500 pounds.

Consider the load at joint (4). In this case, the load will be supported by each abutment; that is, the load will be divided equally between the two supports.

The stress in AB will be $-15,000$ pounds. Method of Section to be in Compression $4,750$ pounds; also the members DC and FE both in Tension $4,750$ pounds.

The combined effect of the previous loads and the load at joint (4) is shown in Fig. 147.

The Dead and Live Load Stresses having been determined independently of one another, the combined effect of Dead and Live Load may now be examined.

As previously pointed out, the Dead Load represents the weight of the truss and any fixed objects that may be on the bridge. This being the case, the stresses determined by considering the Dead Load alone will exist when the bridge is not in use. Furthermore, because the Dead Load is always on the truss, there will always exist the tendency to produce these Dead Load Stresses, although, as will be seen, these stresses may be modified, and in some cases reversed, from Tension to Compression by the Live Load.

A plus sign before a value in Fig. 147 indicates Tension, a negative sign indicating Compression.

Considering first the member AB, it is seen from Fig. 147 that this member is always in Compression. The maximum combined stress due to Dead and Live Load is $15,000$ pounds, given when the Live Load is over joint (2) (Fig. 141).

Member	Dead Load stresses	Live Load at			Maximum stresses
		a	b	c	
AB	-4750	-5250	-5000	-3750	-15000
DC	$+5250$	-1250	$+5000$	$+3750$	$+10250$
FE	$+1750$	-1250	-2500	$+3750$	$+5500$

Fig. 147.

Consider the member DC. This member is in Tension $5,250$ pounds, due to the Dead Load. The effect of the Live Load taking up a position at joint (2) is to destroy $1,250$ pounds of the Dead Load Tension.

The Live Load **alone** at joints (3) and (4) places DC in Tension; that is, in either of these positions the Live Load augments the existing Tension due to Dead Load. It is evident that the maximum stress in DC is $10,250$ pounds Tension, given when the Live Load is at joint (3).

Consider the member FE. The Dead Load places this member in Tension 1,750 pounds. The Live Load as it moves to joint (2) is seen to destroy 1,250 pounds of this Tension. Reaching joint (3), the Live Load not only destroys the existing Dead Load Tension, but is seen to place FE in Compression 750 pounds. **However, a Tension member due to its slender proportions cannot take up Compression without "buckling."** This being the case, provision must be made for this 750 pounds Compression, which would otherwise "buckle" FE.

The Counterbrace.

Let Fig. 148 represent the panel in which the member FE lies. In this diagram, the line joining A and B represents the member FE.



Fig. 148.

It has just been shown that when the Live Load reaches joint (3) (Fig. 141), the member FE would be subjected to 750 pounds Compression. This being the case, the condition of affairs may be represented by a pair of equal forces, one acting at each extremity of FE at A and B as indicated in Fig. 148, these two forces tending to place FE in Compression.

Now, since FE cannot withstand Compression, the joints A and B will tend to move inward under the forces indicated. But when the joints A and B move inward,

the joints D and C will move outward. A Tension member placed from D to C, as indicated by the dotted line, will prevent D and C from moving outward, and, in consequence, prevent A and B from moving inward. That is, a Tension member placed from D to C capable of taking 750 pounds stress will relieve the member FE from any liability to being placed in Compression when the Live Load is at joint (3).

The member FE must be capable of taking 5,500 Tension, which is the maximum combined Dead and Live Load Stress. This stress occurs when the Live Load is at joint (4).

The above reasoning on the counterbrace, while of an almost self-evident nature, must be recognized by the reader as merely a popular explanation, which could hardly stand a scientific examination without further explanation.

The reader can easily see that it would be impractical to place a small compression member alongside FE to take up the excess Compression when the Live Load is at joint (3). If, however, a diagonal member be placed from the remaining corners of the panel, it is evident that **if FE be considered as not acting, and, therefore, left out of the problem, that this new diagonal member will be in Tension when the Live Load arrives at joint (3). To prove this statement, let the reader take out the member FE in Figs. 133 and 141 and replace it with a diagonal member placed from the other corners of the panel. If the Dead and Live Load stresses be determined for this new member and then combined, the member will be found in Tension 750 pounds.**

Influence Lines.

A curve which shows the variation of stress in any particular member of a truss as the Live Load moves over the structure is known as an Influence Line.

The above definition is complete in as far as it goes, but it may be pointed out here that curves which show the variation in Shear and Bending Moment at any particular point or section of a body for a moving load are also known as Influence Lines.

Curves which show the variation of Stress, Shear or Bending Moment for different sections of a body while the load stays in one particular position are not called influence lines, but have names applied to them according to the function they represent.

APPENDIX

This portion of the book, presented as an appendix, gives an extremely neat method of solving problems which resemble those of the Funicular Polygon. The reader must not confuse the polygon derived by the method with the figure of the Equilibrium Polygon, although, so far as geometrical outline is concerned, both are identical. In the following discussion the original body acted upon is considered as indefinitely extended, and the original forces as concentrated at points, which by their position counteract one another, thereby allowing the reader to reduce the forces to an equilibrium point. The polygon so derived is, for want of a better name, called by the author a Funicular Polygon, although it is fully recognized that, so applied, the name is not absolutely accurate.



THE FUNICULAR POLYGON SECOND GRAPHICAL CONDITION OF EQUILIBRIUM.

Graphical Location of the Resultant of a Set of Forces.

It has been already shown that the resultant of a set of forces which act at a point also acts at the same point, thus making the problem of locating the resultant a very simple one for that particular case. There arise, however, numerous cases where the forces comprising a set do not act at a point, so that the previous method of locating the resultant does not apply. If the lines of action of the forces comprising the set intersect at a single, determinable point, the resultant might be located at this point.

[illegible]

the resultant of the forces represented by the sides of the polygon, the method is impracticable.

Let P , Q , and S (Fig. 30) be any three coplanar forces, and $ABCD$ their vector polygon, the area to be traversed constantly, which is represented by AD .

Take a point O inside or outside of the vector polygon, and connect to all points of the polygon to the representations of the various forces; in this case, to A , B , C , and D . It might have been quite clear, in this particular case, to connect and join O to all corners of the vector polygon, but the above phraseology is more general and applies to the polygon of any set of coplanar forces.

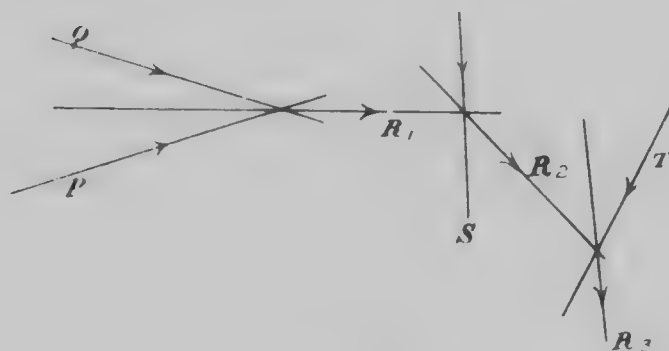


Fig. 30.

Before proceeding with the argument, there are two facts that must be borne in mind throughout this proposition:

1. A force may be replaced by its components at any point on its line of action.

2. The resultant of two forces acts through the intersection of the lines of action of the two forces.

Referring back to Fig. 31, AO and OB represent a pair of components of the force represented by AB , i.e., the force P . P may, therefore, be replaced by AO and OB at any point on its line of action. See (1). At any point X on the line of action of P introduce AO and OB . P only is the line of action of OB to intersect the line of action of Q at Y . Q may be replaced by the two components represented by BO and OC , and, since Q may be replaced at any point on its line of action, move the point Y . At Y introduce the components AO and OC . The line of action of BO only, of course,



The forces P , Q , and S have been replaced by their respective components, so that in place of the original forces there are now acting the forces AO , OB , BO , OC , CO , and OD . It is seen, however, that OB and BO are two forces of equal magnitude, acting with opposite senses in the same line of action. Their effect on the equilibrium of the body is, therefore, zero. In the same way, OC and CO counteract one another, thus leaving AO and OD , so that as far as actual effect is concerned **AO and OD are equivalent to the original forces.** But AO and OD are two components of AD , or conversely, AD is the resultant of the two forces, AO and OD ; i.e., from (2), AO and OD may be replaced at the intersection of their lines of action (the point Z) by AD . AD , however, is the resultant of the original set of forces which it was required to locate.

The Funicular Polygon.

In Fig. 31 the polygon $XYWZ$, formed by the lines representing the directions of the replacing components is given the name of a **Funicular Polygon**. This polygon must not be confused in any way with the vector polygon, nor with the lines drawn from the point O to the vector polygon. This last mentioned point O is known as a "pole," which, together with the vector diagram and the lines to O , form a **Polar Diagram**.

The Resultant Couple.

There arise many cases of sets of forces where, if the vector polygon be drawn, it is found to close, and yet the forces are not in equilibrium. For instance, if in Fig. 32 the vector polygon ACB be drawn for the set of forces P , Q , and S as represented, it is found to close. But it is evident that such a set of forces would produce a rotation of the body; that is, there is not equilibrium, although the resultant force is zero.*

It will thus be seen that cases may arise when a set of forces acts upon a body, such that, although what we term the **resultant force** vanishes, there is yet a motion of rotation about some point in the body; and we speak of the forces as equivalent then to a **resultant couple**.

* Three forces to be in equilibrium must act at a point.

Draw the funicular polygon for P , Q , and S , and it will be found that the first and last components do not intersect one another, if their directions are produced, but that they have parallel lines of action.

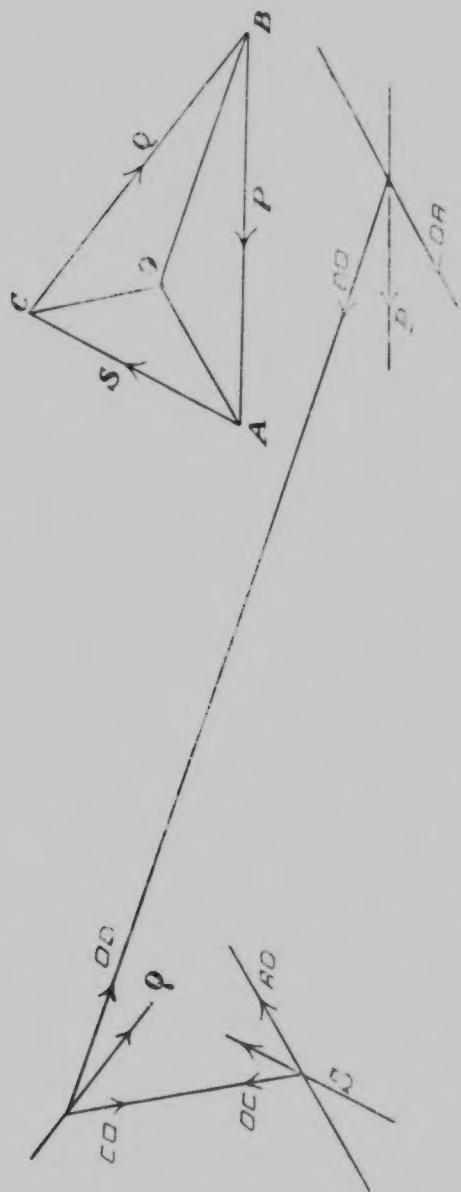


Fig. 32.

Since these first and last components are of equal magnitude and act in the opposite sense, they form a couple, which is called the **Resultant Couple**.

Second Graphical Condition of Equilibrium.

If in the last proposition and in the one preceding it, the lines of action of the first and last components had been coincident, these two components would then counteract one another, so that the effect of all the replacing components would be zero, or, in other words, the original forces would be in equilibrium.

So, then, as a second graphical condition of equilibrium, **the first and last components of the funicular polygon must have their lines of action coincident.**

This is often more concisely stated by saying that **the funicular polygon must close**, keeping in mind what is meant by the word "close."

Graphical and Analytical Determination of the Resultant.

Graphical.	Analytical.
Vector Polygon gives the magnitude, direction, and sense of the resultant.	$\sum X = X_R$ $\sum Y = Y_R$ $R = \sqrt{\sum X^2 + \sum Y^2}$ $\tan \alpha = \frac{\sum Y}{\sum X}$
Funicular Polygon locates the line of action of the resultant.	$\sum M = M_R$

Conditions of Equilibrium.

Graphical.	Analytical.
Vector Polygon must close.	$\sum X = 0$ $\sum Y = 0$
Funicular Polygon must close.	$\sum M = 0$

